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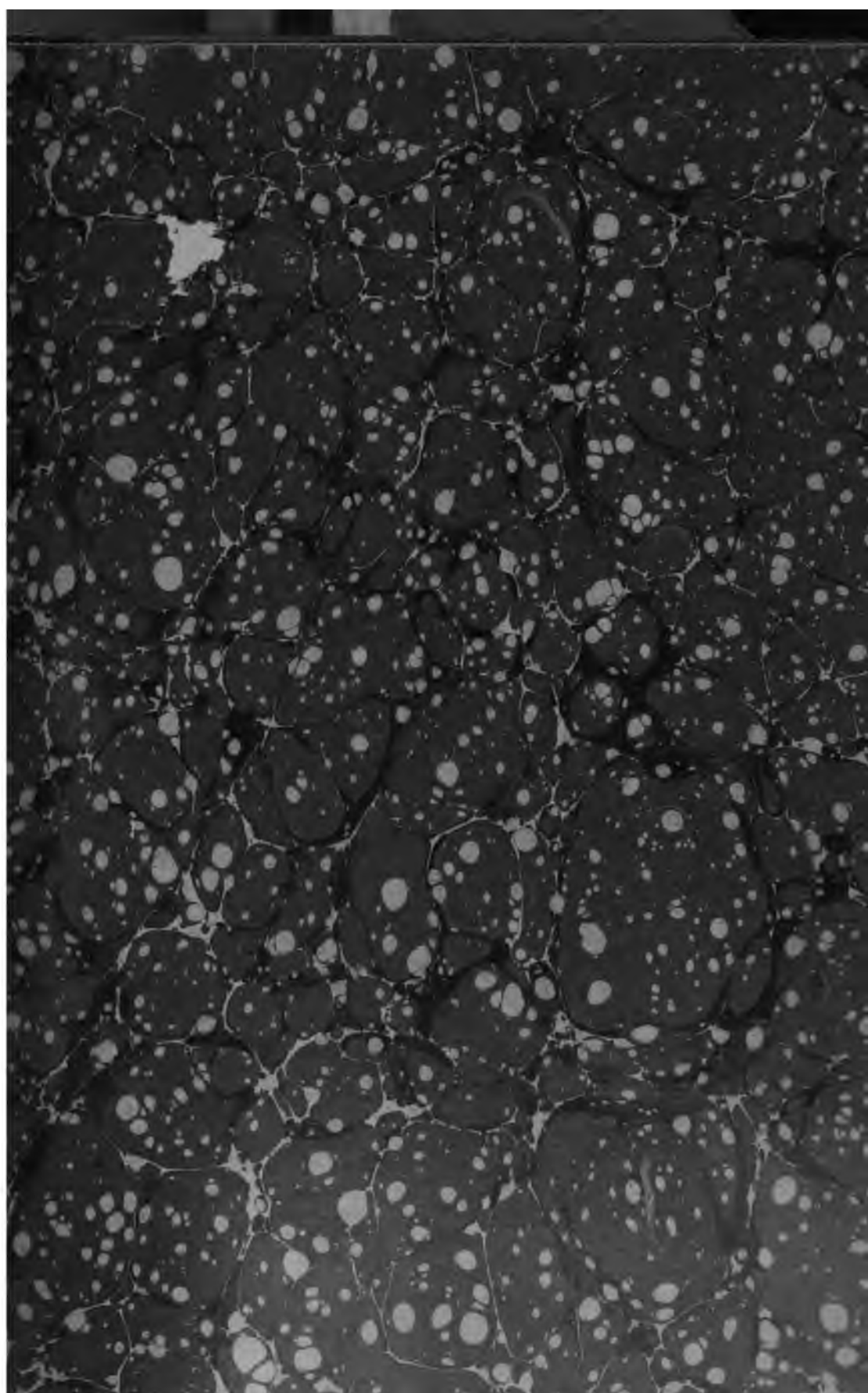


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# SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

GEORGE P. BROWN, Editor

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VOL. XXVII.  
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# SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

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SEPTEMBER, 1907

No. 1

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## EDUCATIONAL SURVEY.

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**President Schaeffer's Address at the N. E. A.** The inaugural address of President Schaeffer at the Los Angeles meeting of the N.E.A. in July, was both able and timely. One of the editorial staff of the *Chicago Tribune* dispraises it as "molly-coddling," but it seems to the school-master that it is a species of effeminacy that it would be in the interest of the progress of the human race for all men to cultivate. This national body of teachers expressed its sentiments in the following resolution which was unanimously adopted:

"The National Educational Association believes that the forces of the world should organize and operate in the interests of peace and not of war; we believe that the productive, commercial, and social interests of the people of the United States and of the whole world demand that the energies of both governments and citizens be devoted to the conservative and healthful pursuits of peace, and that the people be relieved of the burdens of providing at enormous expense the armaments designed for supremacy in war. We further believe that the occasion and fear of war would alike decline if governments would rely more upon the convictions of the people and less upon the strength of their armies and navies."

Every real teacher honors a noble spirit of self-defense in individual and in state, but there is little that is honorable to a man in adopting the methods of the brute in the defense of his own interests. In dealing with savages and barbarians, whether as pri-

vate citizens or as nations, the policeman's club is yet justifiable, to a degree; but among civilized men, the most honorable and, often, the most heroic method of defending one's rights, is in the discussion in a court of arbitration. The psychical and not the physical conflict is the one that most becomes a man. It is the brute, whether on four legs or on two, that rejoices in the victory of physical might.

Now this is what the public press, as represented above, calls "molly-coddling." The sober conviction of every enlightened people on the earth is in harmony with the sentiment expressed by President Schaeffer. It is when the common people become mad by the waving of the red flag of war that they revert to their brutish instincts inherited from a long line of brute ancestors. There is a psychology of nations as there is of individuals. That of the nations is that of the individuals writ large. But the brute instinct of the crowd is still active after that of the worthy citizen has been put to sleep—largely because of the influence of numbers. It is never difficult, upon occasion, to change an orderly community into a howling mob. When the mob-spirit is on, all appeal to "sweetness and light" is "molly-coddling" in the estimation of the mob—so short is the as-

cent of man as yet above the brute, in his moral nature.

President Schaeffer's theme was, "What Can the School Do to Aid the Peace Movement?" The following quotation from his address will show the trend of his discussion:

"The fact that boys at the age of thirteen can learn to shoot with marvelous accuracy, should be correlated with the fact that at the same age and even earlier, boys can be taught all sorts of breakneck acrobatics; no one would on account of the skill which may thus be acquired, be justified in advocating the introduction of either acrobatics or rifle practice into the curriculum of our public schools. The development of skill in shooting is desirable on the part of those who join the army or the state constabulary, but if during a strike, every striker were a skilled rifleman, the difficulties in maintaining order would be infinitely multiplied.

"Perhaps for police purposes, if not for national protection, we shall need an army and a navy during coming centuries, but, as soon as the 3,500,000 of teachers in the schools of the civilized world shall begin in earnest and with skill to inculcate sentiments of peace and the principles of justice and fair dealing in the treatment of weaker nations, we may hope for the limitation of armaments and the dawn of an era of peace that is worthy of the disciples of the Prince of Peace."

The movement which is now organizing throughout the civilized world to direct the efforts of parents and schools to the improvement of the theory and method of the moral instruction of the young is directly in line with the address of President Schaeffer.

Human society is now, again, in one of those materialistic phases of its evolution into which it has fallen at different periods in its progress. Mankind—individuals, and nations—are at present in a frenzied struggle after wealth for the power that wealth gives. This, in the hands of the "frenzied financier," is the lowest order of power

above that of force and arms. The highest order of power possible to man is that which he exerts through an intelligence and will acting in obedience to moral law. The creative force of the universe is a moral force, and the purpose of education is to make the moral nature of man supreme over both his intellectual and animal nature. Man has finally come to this conviction through his vibrating process between the exercise of physical and intellectual power. The most advanced race has seldom, if ever, made moral power its supreme aim. But never has the progress toward this consummation been so rapid as during the past half century.

The present vulgar rage for the power that wealth gives is but a transient phenomenon in the moral ascent of man.

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#### Illinois' Great Opportunity.

The late General Assembly of Illinois provided for a commission to codify the school laws of the state. This translated into the vocabulary of common life means a commission to perfect the common school system of the state. Her school laws have come to be a jumble of inconsistent enactments and outgrown provisions. It is time that the central state of the union in location, and the pivotal state in matters of national import, become the leading state in its educational facilities. Our school system is a bit of patch-work without unity and organization of parts.

A good system will not, of itself, insure good schools, but it will greatly aid other agencies to secure them. Indiana has now the best school system,

and her rural schools are in the forefront of American rural schools except in those states having a larger supply of competent teachers. It is the teacher that makes the school, but the best school system will itself produce the best teachers when it becomes fully operative.

Illinois is fortunate in having a governor who is taking the lead in this movement for the betterment of public education in the state. In fact the codification of the laws was Governor Deneen's suggestion as the first thing to be done.

Like all important movements in great reforms, much will depend upon the character and ability of the members of the commission, and the thoroughness with which they do their work. It has become manifest that Governor Deneen will ignore partisan politics in his administration of public education. Prominent among his appointments to the commission will be Supt. E. G. Cooley of Chicago, who is a democrat in politics. Education concerns all people alike and the best representatives of the people should be chosen for this commission.

It would be a mistake should this commission be composed entirely of school masters. Neither should it be made up of lawyers exclusively, nor of farmers, nor men of affairs exclusively. Its membership should be chosen from different vocations in so far as strong, scholarly men interested in the proper education of children can be secured from these. It is of exceeding importance that the secretary be well equipped for the duties of steering committee of the commission. There is a rumor that the commission is to

consist exclusively of persons chosen from those who pursue education as a vocation.

It has been reported that this commission will be expected to make a final report to the next General Assembly. That would be practically impossible. Only ten thousand dollars was appropriated for the salary and expenses of the commission. A competent secretary could not be secured for less than this amount. If the General Assembly had fully appreciated the duties of such a commission, an appropriation of at least twenty-five thousand dollars would have been made. The experience of the next twelve months will probably show the need of more time and more money for the completion of this important work.

This work, when it is done, should be well done, and to do it well requires much study and travel, and many conferences.

Illinois has inherited the rich experience of the other states, and can stand upon their shoulders in surveying her route. But every inheritance must be earned anew if the inheritor shall really possess it.

---

**Enoch A. Gastman** died at the Parker House in Boston, on August 2, 1907. He was born in New York City, seventy-three years ago, and has been a citizen of Illinois for sixty-nine years. In his youth he was so seriously wounded in his foot as to discourage him from continuing the vocation of a farmer, and he entered the State Normal School at Normal with the first class that graduated from that institution. Soon af-



ter graduation he began teaching in Decatur, Ill., then a small village, and completed a service of forty-seven years as teacher and superintendent of the schools in that city in June last.

His history is unique, for so was the man. He was the personification of integrity and sound judgment, with a warm heart and generous disposition which won respect and love of those who knew him. He was open-minded and hospitable to new ideas, but conservative in his practice. He followed the injunction, "prove all things and hold fast that which is good." With increasing years there was a corresponding growth of his influence in his profession. As a rule each last serious talk on educational doctrine or practice was ever his best. He grew continually in power and light and sweetness, but never grew old. He had discovered the fountain of youth.

The machinery that he had used so long finally wore out and suddenly stopped, and that, too, when he was far from home. But in the larger sense every place was home to him. His home was his country and his country was the world. There has never been any arrest in his growth of soul. Why should man suppose that there can ever be?

Of Mr. Gastman it can be said as truly as of any man, that he kept the faith and was blessed in living long enough to finish his course.

His faith was that of Tennyson:

"Twilight and evening bell,  
And after that the dark!  
And may there be no sadness of farewell  
When I embark."

"For tho' from out our bourne of Time and  
Place

The flood may bear me far,  
I hope to see my Pilot face to face  
When I have crossed the bar."

**Milwaukee's  
Achievement.**

In another column is a brief history of the struggle in Milwaukee to reorganize her school system. The main issues were the reduction of the number of members of the board of education, and the abolition of the ward representative. The result of the conflict, which has been waged for two years, is a law providing for a school board of fifteen members elected at large by popular vote. This is not all that could be desired as to number of members, but it is a long step in the right direction. The most blighting curse of municipal education is partisan politics, and personal business interests of individuals and corporations,—two things from which public education should be absolutely free. Some of our largest cities are shaking themselves loose from this old-man-of-the-sea, to the great betterment of the education of the children.

There is another evil kindred to, if not always consequent upon large boards elected by wards. It is the administration of the schools by committees. Committees are irresponsible bodies, and the whole board pleads its irresponsibility because its work must be done by committees. The administration of municipal affairs, civil and educational, by five to seven men who determine what shall be done in a round-table conference is growing in popularity because of its superior efficiency and righteousness.

**A Drastic Criticism.**

Prof. R. M. Wenley, of the University of Michigan, in the leading article of the *Educational Review*—May, 1907—asks whether it is "Transition or What?" that is the matter with our universities: "Whither are our dropsical and anemic universities tending?" He says, "A tremendous stream of tendency seems to be sweeping personal distinction"—such as e. g. Herschel, Airy, Turner, astronomers; Tait, Kelvin, Larmor, physicists; Colenso, theologian; Marshall, economist; Adam Smith, Sir William Hamilton, Edward Caird, philosophers; John Inglis, jurist; W. Y. Sellar, Lewis Campbell, scholars; John G. Lockhart, Andrew Lang, litterateurs;—"into a whirlpool of cheap and nasty materialism." He declares that "the supreme demand centers in building the student into self-mastery *pari passu* with acquisition," else he inevitably goes to swell the ranks of 'the diggers of clay and the makers of bricks'" however long the tail-feathers to his name.

"His personality cannot conform to that of his teacher, nor yet to that of anyone of his compeers. To place him in conscious possession of this unique thing (his personality) is the supreme, lasting service the university can render him." Then all other things will be added unto him.

"Make the man an original force, to be reckoned with, creative even if in the smallest measure, and forthwith, he ceases to be a mere receptacle for ideas old and new, or another tool in the gloomy shop of manufactured knowledge."

Professor Wenley believes the present status of the university is transitory, but a transition "destined to oppress us" for another quarter of a century.

"Why," he asks, "do so many 'college-bred' merchants, lawyers, and professors, read nothing untechnical save newspapers, dime magazines, and 'greatest novels of the century,' discovered one per week by Barrabas, the publisher? Why are so many educated men in all walks of life philistine, narrow, credulous, devoid of poised judgment regarding what is harmful what valuable to a human being?" "Why is the A.B., or what not, so conventional, so impervious to ideas not consecrated by usage?" "Why has our stock of great men run so low?"

What, then, is the duty of the university? Not to impart a little more knowledge; *nor to impart anything*; "but to represent something; *to insist, yesterday, today, and forever upon a certain mental and moral attitude.* All around us there is an immense hubbub over things insignificant intrinsically, and a conspiracy of silence about the one significant fact—the transitive power of a developed manhood."

Why do not the universities turn out more great men? One reason is that young men who feel the "growing pains" of greatness within them do not find these stimulated and directed by the university. Professor Wenley would say that the university has not itself the mental and moral attitude which the student must cultivate, and it is silent about that one significant fact—the transitive power of a developed manhood." This is in effect

a declaration that the university itself has not the matured greatness which attracts a budding greatness. If the transition shall be made in twenty-five more years from what is to what must be, if the university shall again become the nursery of great men, our educational millennium is indeed near.

When the university sets its face hard toward greatness more than toward bigness, the contagion will spread to the high schools, and from the high schools to the grades. Greatness is a creative force, and a creative force must always be reckoned with. When the supreme demand of the school is that the student build himself into "self-mastery *pari passu* with acquisition" from the primary grade to and including the university, then will the entire system have in it the element of greatness and not before. The vocation, the station, is no criterion of greatness. The hod-carrier may be greater than the emperor. Acquisition of power must keep step with acquisition of knowledge—power to feel and to do creatively.

It matters little how crude or how rude the performance, so it is the self at his best. The school does not now demand of each self that he do his best and that he refuse to be satisfied with less.

---

**Utilitarian Education.** Educationists, many of them, in their talks to the public ear and in their writings for the public eye, are emphasizing the need that the commanding purpose of the elementary and high school shall be the utility of the education they seek to give. To be sure, "Lords and Gentle-

men and Honorable Boards" who direct the public education of the country, what defense has ever been made or ever will be made for an education that is not pre-eminently utilitarian? The only question that can arise is, What is utilitarian education?

Such an education has three essentials which three are one whole. They are three in the sense that all conscious human life loves, wills, and knows: it is conscious of itself as feeling, willing, and thinking, so soon as it is able to discriminate between these experiences. But it is never conscious of one of these without having at the same time a vague consciousness of the other two. The self is a unit and always acts as such. Every self is a trinity of persons. In one of these there is a predominating feeling; in another the will is the superior consciousness; and in the third it is the thought—the judging power. But the whole self acts in each of these three persons—the three persons constitute the one self. The curious reader may discover in this statement a hint of the psychological explanation of the doctrine of the trinity.

In every judgment, indeed, the self as feeling prompts the self, as will, to project the object of consciousness, and the self as intellect identifies this object with the self as subject. For example: in the judgment, "I am writing," the feeling ego projects (wills) the object of conscious "writing," and the intellect declares its identity with the ego ("am"). Fundamentally the being to be educated is a spiritual compound of feeling, will, and intellect, and these elements of the compound emerge into

consciousness in the evolution of the infant self in the order here noted.

Now no man in his senses will declare that education to be of the greatest utility to either the self who is educated or to society, in which the intellect, or the will, or the feeling is ordered to the disregard of the other two. That education must be the most useful which is the most effective in prompting the learned to *desire what is best*, to *work* for its attainment, and to *select* the best means and agencies to secure it. Who will say that the ordering of this desire is of less utility than is the effort to attain, or the selection of the best means of acquiring the thing desired?

When the school gives such an education what more can it do that will be useful? Indeed, what more can be done for the child? Certainly the "whole child" has been educated, and no education could be of greater utility to the individual or to the community than this harmonious development of the three that constitute the one self. The plea that we educate for utility must mean, therefore, that the whole child be educated—and the fact that such a plea is so repeatedly made in recent times is evidence that, in the opinion of these pleaders, the whole child is not educated by present prevailing methods.

Having agreed upon the above as a fair statement of the end sought by education, we may pass to the consideration of the ways and means. The source from which we must draw for our means is, certainly, the environment. But the environment is not the Kingdom of Heaven to which the child is to be "adjusted," as eye-glasses

are adjusted to the eyes by the oculist. The writer listened to an excellent address by an educational official recently, which seemed to say that "adjustment" of the child to the social order must be the way and the means adopted by the school; that this adjustment is education. The address was one continued plea for "adjustment" as the process of educating the child. Now by every standard dictionary of the English language "adjustment" is essentially a mechanical process. Before we use it to name the process of promoting spiritual growth our dictionaries should be revised. "A rose by any other name would smell as sweet," but it is confusing when it is called by another name without making it clear that the rose is the object meant. There is a good deal of adjustment in adapting the method of teaching to the method of life, but the "method of life" is something infinitely more than a method of adjustment.

"Why so critical about the selection of a word," do you ask? Because there is involved in it the difference between a false and a true educational theory and practice.

There seems to be a determined effort in some quarters to explain the soul and human life in terms of motion, and this substitution of "adjustment" for "self-activity," in formulating a theory and practice of education is indicative of this tendency. There are critical periods in the progress of human thought as well as of human government. A little knowledge of science is a dangerous thing in that it tends to intoxicate the brain with atheism. Drinking largely sobers it again, to be sure, but the average educationist, as

well as the average man, is not a large drinker from the fountain of scientific knowledge.

There is much so called education in our schools, and especially in our high schools, that is certainly not utilitarian,

nor anything else but waste or worse; but this arises not so much from the subjects studied as from the way they are studied, which proposition will be considered at another time.

### ENOCH A. GASTMAN.

JOHN W. COOK.

In the early fall of the year 1851, my parents with their two boys located in McLean county, eleven miles north of the thriving village of Bloomington. The country was sparsely settled, yet there were a dozen families within a radius of a couple of miles. One of these pioneer farmers was a retired sailor, a sturdy Hollander, who had suffered shipwreck and whose rescue had started a train of experiences that brought him to the prairies of central Illinois. He had three sons, the eldest of whom was Enoch, then seventeen years of age, a tall, angular, rather awkward youth, but of excellent parts and of fine repute through all the countryside for his manliness and his exceptional reliability. He had a way of holding his head erect and looking toward some distant goal, as if he were native to the sea or to the wide expanse of the sweeping prairies. We all have seen it a hundred times and the sternness of his eyes when unrelieved by the light of his playful humor. I was always impressed by this peculiarity of his expression but when I learned the method of his life it was simple enough; he had inherited the habit of his sailor father of guiding his course by the fixed stars.

There was never a more hospitable

neighbor than this burly Dutchman. If ever we were near his home and omitted the courtesy of a call he came to upbraid us for our lack of sociability and he did it with a vigor and plainness that left no room for doubt as to his meaning.

His sons came into their inheritance of frank, plain, cordial fellowship in the true order of nature. Frank, the youngest, followed the bugles and the drums in the splendid days of our supreme exaltation and sleeps in an unknown grave. George, the second son, is a retired farmer and resides at Hudson, not far from the old home. The flowers that he loved and that were laid with loving hands upon Enoch's bier have barely lost their freshness.

In the winter of 1852-3, Enoch and I went to the log school house in Money Creek district and sat under the instruction of Marven Coman, a precise schoolmaster of the old regime. Enoch, ten years my senior, was the big boy of the school. Four years later, after a term or two at Eureka College, he taught our village school and I was one of his pupils. He was the best teacher the little community ever had and was reemployed for a second term. It was an epoch-making experience for the boys and girls, for he

showed us some of the stars which his long vision had found. Years and years ago I tried to tell in a little story for the school magazine how he stopped the fighting on the play ground.

In the early October days of 1857 he went to Bloomington and on the first day of the Illinois State Normal University was enrolled as a student. Three years later the first commencement was held in the unfinished building out on the prairie and he gave his oration and received his diploma. The succeeding September saw him teaching at Decatur and there he remained for forty-seven years.

But exact and detailed biography is aside from my present purpose. That will come later. He was probably the dean of the city superintendents of America that have spent their lives in a single community, and his passing removes from the educational field one of the most interesting school men of the country. He was a genuine person in the strict sense of that loosely-used term and the qualities that marked him off and gave him his distinct individuality are familiar to the teachers of Illinois.

Mr. Gastman was a plain man—plain in speech, plain in dress, plain in manners, plain in his living. It was not hard to find out what he was doing. He was never afraid to show his hand. He always understood where he was and never had any mental confusion as to his relations to the public. As a school superintendent he regarded himself as employed not alone by the board of directors but by the entire community and to that community he rendered a strict account of his stewardship. I never read another school

report that was so saturated with the personality of the writer, and yet it was mainly statistical. He did not print elaborate treatises upon pedagogical themes but exhibited in patient detail the expenditure of every penny of the people's money. He believed in the principle of publicity and practiced it in all of his dealings with the public. To this sincere frankness and transparent candor the largest part of his popularity was due. The people knew that they could trust him.

He had none of the wits of the "manager." He was too blunt for that. He stood four-square to the world so that you could tell the directions by looking at him. There was never any facile surrender to this or that passing inclination of the public mind which is quite often seen when people lose the final lines of sight and try to find their way by things that are too near. I do not mean that he was opinionated and pig-headed; nobody was less so. He would simply say: "You have a right to determine these matters because you are the final authority, but you are not acting wisely as the results will be quite sure to indicate."

He never sought a reelection. It came unsolicited and in nearly every instance was unanimous. It was nothing less than a marvel that he held his own so completely for almost a half century for he was not a "popular" man in the ordinary sense of that term. Once or twice there were efforts to defeat board members who were known to be his friends, but he spoke to no one; the people, who thoroughly believed in him, attended to the matter very unequivocally.

The same quality of simple candor manifested itself with regard to knowledge in general. He was the least pretentious of men. Indeed, his modesty often led him to affectations of ignorance concerning matters in regard to which he was profoundly wise. His large experience and plain common sense made him a safe counselor not only in educational affairs but in all aspects of life. He was rather fond of making fun of the educational philosophers and wondering whether they understood their own terms, but he never deceived anyone who knew him. We had all found him out years ago and we knew that he was sound to the core. He was not a radical reformer but he was a sane administrator. He built good school houses and did it in an economical way. He clung to what had shown itself to be good, yet he was on the lookout for what was better in courses of study and in methods of instruction.

A close analysis of Mr. Gastman's character is necessary to anything like an understanding of him and of his splendid work. He was, to me, a trinity of well-developed characteristics. No one of them really dominated his life to the marked suppression of the others, but they played into each other in a most charming fashion.

There was an exceedingly mirthful vein in his disposition. He was sensitive to the humorous aspect of things and was extremely fond of the comedy side of life. He was a good laugh and loved to make others laugh. He looked for the relief which comes with the play of fancy as it festoons with its delightful draperies and airy grace the severer forms of reality. He believed

that we are entitled to all of the legitimate joy that we can gather as we pick our way through a world that will present to the most favorably conditioned enough to fill the stoutest heart with anguish at times. This quality made him a charming institute leader and explained no small part of his great popularity with his teachers. Then it was of significant value as an outer court into which he would admit the stranger until he had measured him up and found his message. It was an instinct with him to contribute to the personal happiness of his fellow traveler. We all remember the quotation from Henry Drummond that he tacked upon his desk so that it might be within his line of vision when at his work "I shall pass through this world but once. Any good thing, therefore, that I can do, or any kindness I can show to any human being, let me do it now let me not defer it nor neglect it; for I shall not pass this way again."

Over against this quality there was set the most tender sentiment; an inclination to melancholy would not be too strong a characterization perhaps. It turned him toward childhood which he invested with that dignity and sacredness which every genuinely true-minded teacher recognizes. Like Froebel he saw the reflection of divinity in every child and loved to repeat in a most striking way: "It is the will of the Father that not one of these little ones shall perish." Few faces were so sad as his when he gave himself over to unconscious reflection. You can see it as the young sculptor caught it in the bust that we unveiled some years ago in the old high school building. When I saw him thus absorbed I fancied that

he was busy with the memories of his manly sons, whose untimely passing so wrung his patient heart, and I stole away in silence as one who feels himself invading the hallowed precincts of a sanctuary. It was this side of his nature, I think, that led him into those personal relations with his teachers and that made him their friend. It was his settled policy to defend them as long as there were grounds for defense. He saw their side of the case clearly when there were two sides and he made the most of it. Here he cherished his friends and here their names were written in ineffaceable lines, although he never hesitated to express his dissent from views that did not fit into his system of meeting the world. Here, too, was the realm of his religious experience and he was deeply religious in the best sense. He made little of much that is written in the creeds and one who did not know could not have determined his denominational affiliation. He was deeply impressed with the divine reverence in all of the affairs of time and space and the man of Nazareth won his unflinching allegiance.

A third aspect of his character was a certain sternness and rigor that added to its attractiveness, at least to those who love the truth and the true-hearted. Whatever ties bound him to others he always reserved the right to walk alone. He answered so simply and so instructively to the call of the right, as he saw the right that there was no wavering or hesitation. As a member of the board of education of the State of Illinois for many years and usually as chairman of its most important committee our business rela-

tions were of necessity very close, but the affectionate intimacy of a life time did not silence his dissent from my view if he could not make it square with his good judgment. And so it was that no political party could count him in with any degree of certainty. It must sail by the compass and be honest about it too. He was never a member of any educational clique but was ready always to criticize or approve the action of any man or group of men. I do not mean that he was captious or contentious; he was serenely above all such littleness; he simply decided for himself and in the light of what he regarded as ultimate principle. The torch that guided his way was lit at a high altar and he always kept it burning. It is altogether probable that no other member of the State Teachers' Association of Illinois, in which he held membership for a half a century, was so cordially respected.

It is with a deep personal sorrow that the thoughts of many thousands turn to this rare man. He was not old and in the natural order of events he should have sat among his sheaves in glad content for years before answering to the final call of fate. That he was thinking much of the impending change was indicated by many occasional remarks and especially by the fact that he had confided to his pastor his wishes respecting his funeral and to his faithful wife the names of certain friends who were to be apprised in the event of his taking off. He belongs to the educational history of Illinois and to that older group whose ranks are suffering rapid depletion.

The years will be long before he will be forgotten. While memory



holds her empire in the hearts those whose lives have been enriched by his gracious ministry will pay him the warm tribute of gratitude and will speak of him with loving thankfulness to the new generation that comes to play its part in the wonderful drama of human life.

### THE PLACE OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

GEO. P. BROWN.

#### "STICK TO THE LAST."

The prime need in education is sanity. Now sanity is that ordering of one's thinking and endeavor which gives to them their proper place in the organism of which they are a part. In every organized whole, each part or element is of equal importance to every other, for all is in each and each in all. There is no part more honorable nor less honorable than another. Honor consists solely in the complete performance by the individual element of his function in the organism. The hand cannot say to the head, "I have no need of thee;" nor can the head say to the foot, "Thou art less honorable than I."

Education is seeking to become such an organic whole in this nation. This is but saying that we are seeking to realize democracy in this country:—a democracy of institutions as well as of individuals.

Equality in honor and service does not imply sameness of function. The function of one part may be to command and of another to obey. The head commands the hand: is the honor and service of the hand less because it obeys? Without its service the head would be nothing. Nor can the function of command change place with the function of obedience.

These are hard lessons for unorgan-

ized democracy to learn, but they must be learned if democracy shall prevail and order reign in institutional life, or in the life of any individual.

Education is seeking to become an organic unity of all educational institutions. All institutions are educational in the final analysis, but we are speaking of education in the specific sense of preparation of the undisciplined (whether individuals or institutions) for orderly service. The end of all such education is service; it is a curse otherwise.

Educational institutions are separable into classes, each having a distinguishing function. We divide them roughly into schools for elementary, secondary, college, and university education. Theoretically the university is a system of schools, each of which is preparatory to some vocation. To this system of vocation schools the normal school logically belongs.

But the normal school was introduced into this country, not for the study of a vocation after the college course had been completed, but, rather as an elementary vocation school. Uneducated persons were admitted to it to learn the elementary branches they were to teach in elementary schools and to study and practice ways of teaching them. At first the vocational

training was theoretical and inspirational, rather than practical. Subsequently schools of practice were introduced, and the field of scholarship of the normal school was enlarged.

But the public will never, for long, lose sight of the original and commanding purpose for which these schools are supported, which is to better prepare elementary teachers for the elementary schools of the rural districts and municipalities.

They have a function in the educational field similar to that of the apprentice or trade schools in the industries. It is not their function to produce educational experts. This latter is, however, or should be, the commanding function of the universities in the educational field.

The fact that most universities have not yet as seriously entered upon the work of producing educational experts as they have in producing agricultural and mechanical experts, has stimulated some ambitious normal schools to seek to grow into universities, and the movement is on to secure legislation favorable to this result. At the same time the university is looking forward to the erection of the Teachers' College as a vocational school for the training of expert educationists.

Columbia University has been the first to give adequate support to such a college. Chicago University started something under the leadership of Dr. Dewey, but it is languishing for want of adequate support. Other universities support a "chair of education" or a "department of education" but only a few of them seek to make it rank with agriculture and the mechanic arts, or

with their other "professional schools" of law or medicine.

The student of social evolution will continue to look to the universities to rise to the appreciation of the fact that they must not only teach the arts of living "to the extent that their graduates may become experts and directors in these arts," but that their culminating function is to teach education itself to the extent that the graduates of such a school shall become experts and directors in the art of educating the young. Education is one of the most unknown and, therefore, the most obscure and vague of all the branches of learning. It is as yet largely empirical in so far as it is anything helpful. It was but yesterday that it began to be studied in earnest by even the few. The world is at sixes and sevens in its fundamental view of the world and of the meaning of life. How, therefore, can our educational theories and practices, as a whole, be other than empirical?

But light is dawning. The whole world will continue to contribute to the solution of the problem, but the universities must eventually formulate what shall be accepted as the best practice in each stage of the evolution of the individual and of the race.

For the normal school to seek to become a university in its research and procedure in the field of education, is to seek to duplicate the work of the university. How the university shall be stimulated to hasten the introduction of the teachers' college to its group of vocational colleges does not yet appear. The general public, during the last fifty years, has become convinced of the need of normal schools for the training of teachers for elementary schools.

Neither the public nor the university yet feels the importance of the training of experts in the university for directors of the education of teachers for our elementary normal schools, or as heads of school systems of our cities, counties, and states. Our city school systems become our best teachers' training schools when there is a competent educational director at the head of them.

There is reason to fear that if the present normal schools attempt to make themselves teachers' colleges, they will not only fall between two stools, because they will attempt too much, but that the public will object to paying the expenses of duplicating instruction in the normal schools that can be done more economically and efficiently in the university.

## HOW TO MAKE BIBLE READINGS INTERESTING TO CHILDREN

MARGARET H. J. LAMPE.

### I.

#### INTODUCTORY.

What American children do not know about the Bible is a never-failing source of surprise, distress, or amusement, as the case may be, to many people. It is considered amazing that young people who have attended Sunday school regularly for years and have moreover had the scriptures read to them at "Devotional Exercises" daily throughout their school life should be as densely ignorant of Bible History as the veriest heathen.

Anyone doubting this ignorance will please take the trouble to put a few questions on the subject to all the pupils of any high school where Jewish History has not been a subject of study. If he requires each pupil to reply and controls his countenance so as not to indicate which answers are incorrect he will learn that the greater number even of the senior class, are doubtful whether Joseph, Solomon, Moses, David, and Noah lived before or after Abraham. Some one is sure to tell him that the Jews were Egyptians, that

Isaiah and David were christians, and that Cyrus, Pharaoh, and Nebuchadnezzar must have been Jews or else christians "because they are in the Bible." Probably all the objectors in school will be silenced by the unanswerable argument that "all Bible fellows were one or the other." Most pupils are quite willing to let Noah adopt David and Jonathan as his sons, while the ark has also been known to accommodate without protest Moses, Joseph, Jonah, Job, and Solomon.

The underlying causes for this general ignorance may be discovered by others as they were by me through the following incidents. The first occurred years ago. I had spent an hour in explaining to a high school senior class of forty members the details of the Nebular Hypothesis and had given them the well-known outline for the Mosaic Account of Creation, by which its successive steps are made to appear parallel to the stages of evolution. With this in hand, they were to read the first

chapter of Genesis and reproduce orally next day all that had been told them.

At the beginning of the class period, opportunity, as usual, was given for questions upon points that had not been clearly understood. Grace raised her hand hesitatingly. "One thing bothers me," she said. "Of course I don't want to dispute anything you said and maybe I misunderstood you, but I certainly did think you said God made the stars or anyway something like that; but you didn't mean that did you?" "Who did make the stars, Grace?" "Oh, I don't know. I don't believe God made them though." "Well, who did or could if He didn't, I'd like to know?" burst out Willie, the irrepressible, with a mixture of indignation and contemptuous amusement in his tone. "Yes, I'd like to know that too," chorused several voices. Grace looked distressed. Silencing the rest by a sign, I said "I don't remember making just the statement you quoted but perhaps I did. Now tell us why you thought it wrong." "Why," said Grace, "I know it's wrong because if God had made the stars, the Bible would say so, and it doesn't." "Are you sure?" "Yes." At this all the girls settled down in their seats with an air of being convinced, several boys looked puzzled or doubtful but Willie, after waving his arm frantically for permission, which was granted, blurted out, "Do you suppose God never did anything but what the Bible tells about and hasn't He done anything since that was written?" "No, of course not. It mentions everything. It says He made the moon, and the sun but it doesn't say anything about the stars. So He didn't make them." "Well, didn't he create everything and

who else has the power to create anything?" "Oh, I don't know who made them. How should I know?" said the girl impatiently, "and it doesn't make any difference. They are just there. But no one has a right to say God made them because the Bible doesn't mention it." "Grace," I asked, "did you ever go to Sunday school?" "I haven't missed but two Sundays since I was six and now I'm seventeen. We've been through the important parts of the Bible two or three times. Anyhow, I read about the creation last night and it isn't in it." "Did any of the rest of you read anything that would help settle this point?" No one had though many of them had read the assigned chapter. "I'm surprised, really surprised," I said. "Oh," said Grace quickly, "You needn't mind. I didn't intend to hurt your feelings. Anybody can make a mistake. Of course you just thought He did but didn't take time to look it up." Her face was a study while I answered slowly, "The sixteenth verse of the first chapter of Genesis is 'And God made two great lights; the greater light to rule the day, and the lesser light to rule the night; he made the stars also.'" Most of the class looked relieved. "Are you sure?" asked Grace anxiously. "I don't believe that last is in my Bible or I would have noticed it. I've read it so often." Next day she cheerfully reported "It was there all right, so I guess He made 'em after all."

The above though perhaps an extreme case in some details is nevertheless typical of the usual mental inactivity of children during Bible reading.

Some years after, when my patience had been well-nigh exhausted by the

utter ignorance of several successive history classes on the subject of Jewish History, some pupils were around my desk one day at recess when Carl and Lloyd came up. "Say, Miss L." said the former, "we want you to settle a point. Lloyd says the Jews were Israelites and I say they weren't. I think maybe those were Hebrews and might possibly have been some sort of kin to the Jews and anyway they were heathens." "Well, so were the Jews heathens because they had a golden calf" put in Lloyd. "I don't think Jews were heathens," said Mazie. "Yes, they were, or infidels or atheists. They must have been because they weren't Christians and didn't worship the true God. I mean ours of course," persisted Lloyd. "Why yes, you're right. They must have been because they killed Jesus," agreed the girl. After disentangling their ideas somewhat, I said "There's one thing I wish you would explain to me. Why don't you young people know more of Bible History? You've heard the Scriptures read every school day and every Sunday for ten or eleven years. Why don't you get more out of it?" "It's partly because we have heard it so much that it's an old story and we don't listen," said Mazie; "what I mean is we got accustomed to hearing it when we were too little to understand it and so the reading got to be a sort of solemn form or ceremony and it was all so hazy and we never tried to understand it later. Don't you know most people in church sort of sit and dream while the reading goes on. I don't believe one in ten could tell afterwards what it was about. It's the same here in school. We sort of half-way listen,

but the words are old and familiar and we never take in the sense. Isn't it so?" she appealed to the rest, who all agreed. "What's the good of it then?" I asked. "Not very much," answered Carl, "but you know nobody expects you to think about the Bible anyway. You're to swallow it just as it is and you can do that easier if you don't think." "I should say so" remarked Lloyd under his breath.

"I don't think you should blame us," ventured Cora after a pause. "You see in Sunday-school the lessons are the same for the grown folks and the little tots though the teachers do try to explain them differently. They never choose for the little ones what would interest them or what they could understand and I tell you *not understanding gets to be a habit* and you get so you don't care." "Another thing," said Louise, "the preachers most always read from the New Testament and I suppose they've got to so as to preach from it, but the story of the life of Jesus is about all they dwell on and you know that so well you can take it all in by only half listening, or you think you can. And it's a good deal the same in Sunday-school. The teachers don't know much about the rest of the Bible themselves." "Oh, we have Old Testament lessons at our church," said Cora "but they skip around in it so they muddle us all up about the times things happened."

"You talked of Bible *history*. Why, I didn't know till yesterday that there was any History in the Bible" remarked Carl. "I see now that a whole lot of it is really the story of the Jewish nation. I never knew they were a nation." "Nor I," said Elsie. "Maud

and I were talking about it today. We never knew before that any of those folks—Abraham and Moses and Joseph and the rest of them—ever really lived.” “Nor I either,” said Louise; “I always thought those were just stories made up to teach, some sort of a lesson, though I couldn’t always see the lesson. It takes a preacher to do that I guess.” “Why I did too; I thought they were like those things in the New Testament, parables I guess they’re called,” said Mazie, “and so I never paid much attention to them.” “Yes,” said Lloyd, “when I was a little fellow I had a book of stories about Moses in the bulrushes and Joseph and his coat and Goliath and some others but they weren’t connected in any way and until now I’ve always bunched those fellows in my mind with Jack the Giant-Killer and Old King Cole and Robinson Crusoe.” “I don’t see,” said Cora, “why the story of the Jews as a nation couldn’t be picked out of the Bible and joined together by some one in order and then told to children at Sunday school in language plain

enough for them to take it in. That would interest most any child and then he’d know something.” “That’s just what Miss L— is doing for us now in General History,” said Carl, “and yet you think it hard.” “Of course,” answered Cora, “anything is easy to learn if it is made simple and straight in the first place, but somehow it won’t go into you to stay if your head has been full for years of hazy, twisted and muddled ideas about the same people or things. I believe if we were started right and our ideas kept straight and not so many at once stuffed into us, that we wouldn’t have the trouble with any of our high school studies that we do. Most of our time is spent in trying to untangle wrong things instead of learning new ones straight and it’s awfully discouraging.”

(To be continued.)

[The following numbers will show how, as a result of the preceding conversation, the children became interested in the Bible and many of their false impressions were corrected.]

**“Teaching is always prophetic. It aims to describe the needs of the future, and to equip the childhood of the present for the mature life that is to be.”**

*From “The Making of a Teacher” by Dr. Martin G. Brumbaugh.*



## Within the School-Room.

A Department of Observation and Reports of Classwork and School Management Conducted by George Alfred Brown.



### The Course of Study.

"Tinkering" with the course of study is a characteristic activity in American school management. At the present time there is a tendency to do more than "tinker," but fortunately the problem of actual reconstruction is so difficult that few have the temerity to undertake it alone. Therefore, we find organizations of teachers, superintendents, and students of educational practice banded together for the study of details and of experimental practice. This is encouraging as a beginning though some of these organizations must needs follow will-o'-the-wisps. In most cases each group is a band of disciples of some hypothesis put forward as more or less of a cure-all, and there is as yet little attempt made by the different groups to get together for a deeper study of principles. The Shibboleth of sect and the desire to apply theories is too insistent.

As a criticism of this condition, Superintendent J. M. Greenwood of Kansas City, tells us, in the *Journal of Education*, the story of a band of Arkansas hogs whose master, because of the loss of his voice was compelled to call them up from the woods at feeding time by rapping on an old dead tree. This answered very well until the time of year for woodpeckers came around. Then the hogs were kept on a continual run from one dead tree to another as the wood-peckers drummed, until they

dropped exhausted in this chase after their last phantom meal.

This warning against drumming on dead wood in the educational forest or, of following sapsless voices, may well be heeded in trying to make, in this department of the journal, some discussion of the changes being made in many courses of study. It is always in order to make adjustments of an accepted general form of the course of study to meet the local conditions, but before radical changes can be made in the aim and method of a school course, it is necessary, even for a fair trial, that teachers agree on the underlying principles, and be prepared to co-operate in working out details. Open public discussion is, therefore, a necessary preliminary to any general change. If the time is come for such discussion of what is sometimes called the industrial basis of education, our columns are open to all who can give any help, be it much or little.

What does this industrial movement mean to the school? It had its beginning, probably, with the introduction of manual training, and domestic science; nature study through the school garden and the experimental farm is coming in now; and trade school departments are in prospect. But these additions on the side of training are not the vital question in the movement. The really serious question is concerned with changes in the end sought and in the method used in teaching the old

subjects. Geography was first affected by the industrial idea and the value of the subject to the school course was much improved by the new spirit given to that work. The change was an enrichment of the subject, rather than a radical difference of aim and method.

At the present time, history teaching is the center of discussion, and the changes proposed to meet the industrial plan seem to materially affect the method if not the purpose of the subject in the lower grades. For many years the history work of the intermediate grades has been enriched by the use of biographies and history stories. This material was supposed to arouse the sympathies of children and to touch life's personal relations. The aim was to develop an interest and appreciation of history as a record, not so much of the material achievements, as of the betterment of human government and enlightenment of spiritual life through the growth of common interests and of broader human sympathies. The method required that each general and historical fact be presented in the conditions of individual life, and that the struggles, privations, and successes of every individual life be shown as having historic value when directed to the uplifting of general human life. The effect on the pupils was expected to be a truer sense of the kind of purpose of each human life that will make it of greater value.

What is different in the industrial idea? In schools making a trial of that idea, I have found real biography and stories of true individual life superseded by what I can best describe as a generalized biography. Miss Dopp writes, in her book, that "the subject of

primitive industries (is to) be presented to the child with reference to the life of the people as a whole." The persons introduced in the stories used with this method stand to both teacher and pupils as lay-figures typifying general life. The difference in this regard from the method which presents the general fact *under the conditions of individual life* is seen at once by comparing these stories with the stories of Hiawatha, Robinson Crusoe, or Lolami, the Little Cliff Dweller, and the like, which are now used in lower grades as a preparation for the reading of actual biographies.

But what seems to me the greatest weakness of history teaching on this industrial basis, appears in the second phase of the method—that of interpreting historic values, and motives in individual life. What values are given most emphasis when the center of interest for so much of the work done by the children is the minute detail of supplying man's primitive needs in elemental and crude ways, and when the purpose of a year's work is to have the child realize (to quote a list from Miss Dopp's book) "why the hunting, fishing, and pastoral peoples are compelled to lead a migratory life, and why the other forms of culture begin under a nomadic form—why the pastoral people could live on a smaller territory than the hunting people—why agriculture could not develop until people acquired a settled mode of life," etc? The children are to be directed to these realizations not through the play of the imagination in forming a setting for the details of a really human story, helped by some free construction work of their own, but by laboriously di-



rected play activities and constructions in which they are supposed to "participate in the experience of the race through its successive steps in the conquest of nature."

As I have watched a few children doing some of this work under conscientious but human teachers it has seemed to me that the children were enjoying for their own sakes the delight of making things and the joy of imitating what they supposed to be real life, and were developing appreciations of form and of adaptations of color. In exploring the woods and fields I have seen them forget the lesson on the needs of primitive man in their enjoyment of strange forms and wonderful colors, and awakened interests in the habits, and all kind of facts about the new life before them. And yet Miss Dopp cautions against this as "*indulging the instincts*" (the italics are hers) and insists that the educational value of environment study is found in trying to realize and utilize, as primitive man had to, the value of hard stones for hammers, of tough grasses for roofs or mats.

It was the poet Goethe who pointed out the fact that we have no direct way of knowing what values former races put on things. It is possible that at one time stone hammers were considered a useless luxury. Can the child by making and using stone hammers in school pass from considering them as a luxury to a real sense of need for them? We do know, from the growth of civilization, that what were the luxuries of one generation became the needs of the next. But was this growth due to the gradual perfection of skill in making stone hammers, or to the influence

of nature's beauties and wonders such as impress the child today? Though the hammer, spear, and arrow heads have come down to us, there is no record of the longings of the primitive human heart. Yet if we are to trace our industrial life back to these beginnings, why not recognize the right of the primitive human soul to claim kinship, as ancestor, to that which is highest and best in our own lives? If this claim is admitted can we say, as a leader of this movement recently did, that the industrial story is better for the primary grade than the myth and fairytale in which facts are turned into symbols for men's early conceptions of better relations? Emerson insists that the human mind always considers the primary use of the fact as low and hastens to transform it into poetry. "As it is a figure or illustration of my thought," he says, "it has real worth." I believe it is worth while to consider the relation of each of these views to the education of the children very carefully before revolutionary changes in the course of study in history are advocated.

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#### Classifications of Pupils.

##### EDITORIAL NOTE.

Our readers will find the following very suggestive article on the classification of pupils by Supt. J. K. Stableton especially appropriate at this time. It is given the position of the usual observation studies, but those studies will be continued next month.

In the October issue we will print an important discussion by Superintendent Stableton of the school problem due to the need of supplementing the home environment of delinquent and dependent children.

Twice a year I receive at my office, a report of every pupil in the first eight grades of the school. These reports are made out by the teacher in charge of each room, and while each report

contains the information called for, they are of especial value to me in that they enable me to aid the teacher in classifying the *unusual* pupils. The report for each pupil gives the age, the standing in each study, the teacher's estimate as to his native ability, any defect in sight, hearing, or speech; in fact any peculiarity that might affect his school work, and the teacher's judgment as to whether or not the pupil should be promoted to the next higher half-grade.

In the great majority of cases, the teacher's judgment as to what should be done in classifying the pupils for the coming semester's work is final, but there are other cases where she is glad to confer with the supervisor and the superintendent. These are not always the slow cases and the dull cases, there is a marked difference between slow pupils and dull pupils, but the very quick as often need attention. Three weeks before the close of each semester these reports are sent to my office, and I, after looking them over, indicate my judgment on each case. In many instances before forming his judgment, the teacher and I talk over the points in order to do the very best by each pupil. Nor do I depend alone on these reports and the talks with the teachers just before making the classification; but during each semester or from semester to semester, I follow carefully the work of these same pupils so that I have a close acquaintance with them individually through my own observation. Not only do the teachers confer with parents, but I, also, make this a part of my work in order that I may be able to help them to see and understand that our whole aim is to place

the child each semester where he will receive the greatest possible good.

As a rule parents are reasonable and willing, when they understand, for us to do what seems best. Sometimes when a neighbor's boy belongs to the quick type that moves on with seemingly perfect ease and a high standing, completing the work of the eight grades in a much shorter period than the ordinary child, while his own belongs to a slower moving type, it is often hard for the parent to feel just right when this neighbor boy gains a half-year, while his own is held for additional work; but the fact is, that his boy would be greatly injured were the attempt made to push him beyond the limit of what is his normal movement mentally, while the quick boy (I say quick rather than bright for he is not always brighter than the slower boy) would be injured by holding him to the same rate of movement through the grades as his slower companion. Then there are the dull ones that are lost if placed beyond their depth but who are sensitive on finding they are not keeping pace with others of their own age. They often give concern as sometimes their parents are ambitious for them. But it is nevertheless the duty of the school to the pupil to class him where he can grasp the work. In general parents come, with care on the part of the school teachers and superintendent, to understand the necessities of the case and help the school to do the best that can be done.

After all the data bearing on these cases has been carefully considered, we proceed as follows: Here is a boy whose work has led the class without apparently taxing him in the least. He is vigorous physically though under age

for his grade. The work of the next semester will not be sufficient to occupy his time. He can easily do the work of two semesters in one, so with the consent of his parents, for, because of his being under age, we would not care to do this without consulting his parents, his work is arranged so that by the close of the coming semester he will have completed the work of two semesters. To do this with a pupil of this type, it is necessary to adjust his work so he can catch up quickly any technical points in the work of the first semester on which parts of the second semester's work might depend, not holding him for all the work of the grade nor for all the drill that the main body of the grade must have. This is simply giving the boy of quick mentality opportunity to move on at his own gait, and in some cases saving for him one or two years for college work.

It is sometimes said that the bright pupil is sacrificed for the sake of the slower ones, and dull ones. By this plan we give the bright pupil every opportunity and encouragement to move on and to thus form habits of working up to the measure of his ability.

Here is a pupil of a different type who is given the same privilege but for a different reason. He is a year or two, in some instances two or three years older than he should be for his grade. He is not a leader but does good technical work, and in his reasoning power is far beyond his grade. He is behind others of his own age possibly because of lack of opportunity to attend school regularly, or because of some physical condition that no longer interferes. He will get more out of the work, and will come nearer putting forth effort to the

measure of his ability if there is before him the thought of gaining a standing with those of his own age. For these reasons he is given opportunity to try to do the additional work.

Then we have the dull ones for there *must* be in the public school those lacking in mental power. For whom does the public school exist? For the bright intellects? Yes, and for all those who grade down in the scale of intelligence from the brilliant to those just above the line of idiocy, and this line is a very uncertain line to establish. They must be held to repeat the work, but after repeating once, it is only in rare instances that the tiresome act of a third repetition means any gain, so we try, in every way possible, to help them, in some cases permitting them to take the work of the next grade that they may get something rather than nothing, and in the case of the poorest give new work as nearly as possible of the same grade.

I wish to distinguish this last group from those whom we call the slow movement type. Those of the slow movement on repeating a grade generally master it thoroughly and often become leaders the second time over the subject. This sense of leadership once aroused in them makes them conscious of the fact that they have ability to lead if they will but give more time and closer attention to their work, and in some cases for their own self-respect they are willing to do this and cease to be repeaters and become strong pupils.

Classifying the pupils of a school is not simply bunching them together, but it is grouping them according to the individual needs. If this work has not been carefully done at the close of the

last semester, the same thought should enter into the adjustments that must be made when the school opens in September.

J. K. STABLETON.

Bloomington, Ill.

#### Nature Study.

When a number of teachers come together and begin to discuss school matters, someone is quite sure to ask: "What books do you follow in your school, I mean what do you consider the best books on nature study and gardening?"

Please do not misunderstand me when I continue this seeming fight against the use of books, for I do believe in them. But I do believe in the study and observation that can be done in the great and glorious out-of-doors in a rational every-day way. The book side of our education will take care of itself, for after all it is the easiest side of the work in the class room, and so I am certain this other side is the one to accentuate as strongly as I can.

Most of us spend a great amount of time reading the various writers on nature topics, Burroughs, Thompson, Seaton, Long, and a host of others, and we enjoy them thoroughly. Why not learn to read at least the large print in the book of nature that lies wide open in our laps every day? What a kind old nurse Dame Nature is, for as though she feared that we might tire of the book after the summer's reading, she begins to close it earlier each evening and opens it later in the morning. Even the illustrations that have been in heavy colors, summer and autumn, are changed to dull engravings and cool etchings in the late autumn and winter

months. Learn to enjoy what the woods and fields hold, not as a lesson to be learned, a lot of dry facts to be stored away for some future examination, but as we do in art, music, or literature. It is the culture side that we can love, and that is the true side of nature.

Is it possible to get the child to realize this thing? I believe it is, for every child reaches out with a definite yearning for the life that is about it. Do we take any particular care to satisfy this yearning that seems a part of the child's God-given faculties? Hardly, for in a short time this child is shuddering when it sees a snake, very much afraid of toads and frogs, and absolutely unwilling to put a finger on a woolly caterpillar. Someone will at once murmur on reading this: "But this feeling of repugnance to snakes and frogs and creepy things is instinctive with me."

Hardly instinctive. No more instinctive than for a little girl with her skirts knee length to hold them up when she crosses a muddy street. She has seen her elders do the trick and she imitates them very naturally. Perhaps none ever said to you in words that a snake was repulsive or a woolly worm disgusting; but when as a tot you showed one or the other of them to an adult, they recoiled and probably screamed, and you at once thought it the proper thing to do.

The great cry from teachers everywhere is for a definite course of study in nature work, something as well defined as a course in spelling and reading, but it cannot be given. It is as impossible as to say what things will be seen on any given walk through the

woods or fields. The successful teacher, the one who really does large things, seizes upon the things about her and utilizes them in connection with the work in hand. A fact by itself amounts to practically nothing, but a fact related to something in the child's environment, the child's experience means power of the proper kind.

Strive to realize that the child is anxious to get a grip on the things which lie about him, and he will in the course of his naturally active little life; it is the teacher's province to so arrange material that he will be able to get it ordered and in a form that will make it possible to keep. I recall very vividly an old gentleman that taught me Greek at school. When the class would slip into the rut, he would say very quietly: "Perhaps you fellows studied this lesson last night, but it doesn't sound very much like it from that reading. Here let me read the lesson for you."

Then after a beautiful reading, he would continue, "Did you notice that peculiar wedding custom that is written of in this lesson. Suppose I take that for you and trace its course down through the centuries to the present time."

He would talk for half an hour, the class hanging on every word; and by the time he had finished the whole class was alive with questions not alone about the lesson, but other things that naturally followed, and we would leave his room busy mentally. It has always seemed to me that it was better to go away thinking and thinking because we desired to think than to have dragged through the lesson whether or no. I know that today although I have prac-

tically lost all the knowledge of Greek that I ever had, still I have the old gentleman's wonderful personality and it is a factor in my life. And although I cannot conjugate a Greek verb, there are a number of things which he brought into relation to every-day life and experience and they are still vivid in my mind.

Learn to teach the children not the names of a number of birds or flowers or insects, but the love that is inherent in their nature for the world that lies close to their very existence. Let them learn that the oldest of all art is the Divine Art in sunrises, sunsets, and long vistas of wood and field; the oldest literature, the thought that lies behind each living thing; the oldest music the song of birds and the harmony of leaves and running water; the oldest religion, the throbbing, vital, subtle, something that is manifest in sunshine and shade everywhere.

JAMES SPEED.

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#### Studies in Psychology.

The first experience of conscious life in coming to itself is Feeling, as pleasure and pain. This Feeling is internal until consciousness, as Will, is roused by the attacks upon it of external objects—its physical environment. Conscious life then separates into a consciousness of internal and external, and the difference between the self and the external objects of sense becomes known. This separation of the external from the internal is an act of will as distinguished from feeling. Will is the separative activity of consciousness in both the internal and the external worlds which it creates. Conscious life, the undifferentiated

mass, is the potentiality, or potency, which becomes man through the immense variety of limitations which it imposes upon itself, and which are feelings, purposes, and knowledge; and through the organization and fusing of these limited aspects of the self into character, in response to instinct or impulse belonging to the nature of the self.

The natural impulse or desire of the conscious mass or potency is to seize upon and appropriate to itself the varied objects in the external world. This it does by recreating them as they appear to the senses. Each self recreates according to its power, and by the process we call will.

By impulse is meant this combination of will and feeling which unite in reproducing in the consciousness the objects of the external world created by the absolute source of all things. Man is the image of the all-consciousness—the absolute feeling, will, and thought—in that he recreates for himself, according to his powers, those things with which the Creator has filled space and time. Man can conceive no other process by which the world was created than that by which he recreates it. God made himself object as nature; so man makes himself object in a judgment.

While feeling and will are the aspects of consciousness, of prior activity in the infant self, the knowing faculty is not absent. Indeed there is no activity of one of these phases of the self that is not attended by the other two. A state of consciousness is named feeling or will or intellect from the greater predominance in the consciousness of one of these elements

over the others. Thus a state of feeling knows and wills, and a state of volition knows and feels, while one of knowing feels and wills. That is, consciousness, or the self, acts as one in every experience.

There are two stages in the growth of the intellect that need to be regarded by the teacher. The first is that which gives elementary knowledge. The second stage is thought.

Elementary knowledge is sense knowledge. The self through the will separates its vague physical environment into objects which it sees in space and time, and which it discovers to be caused by other things as well as to be themselves the causes of still other things. Space, time, and causation are the three fundamental conditions that make it possible for the self to know any object of sense. It must see it in space, at some time, and must recognize it as a cause and as being caused. Thus we run the boundary line between elementary knowledge and thought—which latter is the ultimate and master activity of the intellect.

The feeling and the will do not have such marked stages, as does the intellect, in their development. During the elementary period feeling and will serve as stimulators of the intellect.

The intellect during the elementary period acts as a guide or director of the desires and the will in their struggle to attain ends.

These three phases or aspects of consciousness do not act independently one of another, but altogether as our self or ego, who knows these activities to be its own. But each of them, when studied analytically, is found to be, in a sense, a personality having all the ele-

ments which give personality to the ego. In an important sense man is a trinity of persons—of feeling, willing, and thinking—each of these being a self like unto and in its process identical with the ego.

(It is notable that St. Augustine, and other theologians of a later period, saw in their reflections upon the psychic activity of themselves, grounds for the dogma of the church, which declares the triune nature of God.)

Now the teacher is interested in this analysis in so far as it suggests a foundation upon which to base a process of teaching. The instruction must be adapted to the stage of development of the child. The priority of stages in the child's growth must determine the kind of material to be used in these periods, and how it shall be used.

GEO. P. BROWN.

### LEGENDS OF THE RHINE.

ALEXANDER DUMAS (PERE). TRANSLATED BY MRS. GEO. P. BROWN.

#### *The Drachenfels.*

After we left Bonn, the route was charming. It lay along one side of the Rhine, while on the other side was the base of a chain of mountains, dotted here and there with villages, chateaus, and villas (summer cottages). We soon perceived, from this most picturesque point of view, the beautiful ruins of Godesberg.

On leaving this village we took, at our left, a little cross road which conducted us in a few minutes to the village of Rungsdorf, on the bank of the Rhine, where we found several boats on the lookout for passengers. In a few minutes we were transported to Koenigswinter, a pretty little hamlet situated on the other bank. We inquired when the steam-boat would pass, and were told that it arrived at noon. This would give us five hours in which to visit the ruins of the Drachenfels.

From the time we set foot to the ground—for they suspected that we were climbers,—we were charged upon by a veritable squadron of donkeys and donkey drivers, both male and female, *who each began to praise the qualities*

of his donkey. One of these coursers attracted us by the contrast of its magnificent saddle and the modesty of its name: it was called Little John. His master promised for it upon his honor, that it would not lie down nor pass too near the precipices.

After nearly three quarters of an hour of climbing we arrived at the first summit.

From this first platform a pretty winding road covered with sand, like that of an English garden, leads to the summit of the Drachenfels. One comes at first to a square tower which is entered with difficulty through a crevasse; then to a round tower, which entirely broken open by time, is easily accessible. This tower is situated on the same rock as the dragon. The Drachenfels takes its name from an old tradition in the time of Julian the Apostate. In a cavern that is still shown, half way up the mountain, an enormous dragon lived who was so regular in his meals that if by chance one forgot to bring each day a prisoner or criminal to the spot where he was accustomed to find it he de-

scended to the plain and devoured the first person he encountered. The dragon himself was invulnerable.

This was, as I have said, in the time of Julian the Apostate, who came with his legions to camp upon the banks of the Rhine. Now these Roman soldiers who had no more inclination to be devoured than had the inhabitants of that country, being at war with some of the neighboring tribes, took occasion to nourish the monster with the prisoners of war, without expense to themselves. Among the prisoners was so beautiful a young girl that two centurians disputed for her, neither wishing to give her up to the other. When they were about come to blows, the General decided that to keep peace between them, the young girl should be offered to the monster. The wisdom of this judgment was so highly applauded by some that they compared it to that of Solomon, and they prepared themselves to enjoy the spectacle.

On the appointed day the young girl, dressed in white and wearing a crown of flowers, was conducted to the summit of the Drachenfels where they tied her to a tree. She asked them as a favor to leave her hands free, and as they saw no harm in the request, it was granted her.

The monster, as we have said, led a very regular life; he dined, as they still dine in Germany, at two o'clock. So at the moment when he was expected, he came from his cavern half crawling, half flying, towards the spot where he knew he would find his victim. He had a more ferocious and hungry air than usual for the day before, whether by chance or by the refinement of cruelty, he had been served with an old barbarian prisoner very tough and nothing

but skin and bones. The spectators promised themselves a double pleasure by reason of his added appetite. The monster himself on seeing what a delicate feast was prepared for him, roared for joy, lashed the air with his scaly tail, and sprang towards her.

But just as he was about to strike her, the young girl drew from her breast a crucifix, when the monster stopped as though petrified, and fled hissing into his cavern.

This was the first time that the people had seen the dragon flee. So while some ran to untie the maiden, others pursued the dragon, and encouraged by his fright, placed in the cavern a great many fagots upon which they poured sulphur and yellow rosin, and set them on fire.

For three days the mountain threw out flames like a volcano; for three days the dragon was heard struggling and hissing in his cave; finally the noises ceased; the monster was roasted.

One still sees traces of the flames, and the roof of stone, burned by the heat, which crushes to dust as soon as one touches it.

As I stood admiring the magnificent landscape which is spread for twenty-five leagues all around the summit of the Drachenfels, the highest of the seven mountains, the owner of Little John pointed out, quite beyond Bonn, that is to say four or five leagues upon the Rhine, a black speck which at this distance could scarcely be seen to move, but which by the aid of my glass I recognized as our steam-boat, this other modern dragon which came pouring flame and smoke from its gaping mouth, and beating the Rhine with its iron wings. We began to descend the



mountain, and we arrived opportunely at Koenigswinter.

There was upon the boat a Hollander who, as was the custom in his country, traveled alone with his betrothed. This is an excellent custom. The fiances obtained permission from their parents to travel together. As there is no situation in life, that develops so well the good or bad qualities as travel, the future husband and wife, on sailing up the Rhine, even from Nimeguen to Strasburg, would know their respective characters, as well as if they had lived together ten years. If they find that they are suited to each other, they return hand in hand to their grandparents who give them their blessing, and they are then married. If they do not agree, they part, each taking a different boat home, and they take another voyage, the groom with another betrothed, and the woman with another lover. The result of such experimentation is that it is very rare that by the seventh or eighth voyage the halves of souls who seek each the other half are not successful. Once married the Hollander remains true to his home.

When this young man found out I was, he wished to introduce his fiancée who was a pretty fat Dutch girl, felt obliged to pretend that she had my works. As to the swain, he is fond of the Dutch poetry, and asked me if I knew two poets whom he named. I responded that I had not the honor then told me that they were two of genius who would be known throughout the entire world, if their names could be pronounced in any other country than in Holland.

I pitied the fate of these two unknown geniuses doomed to obscurity by a conspiracy of consonants. I had won me the good will of the two, and made many offers of service if the sire should ever take me to go to kerkirk, which was the name of my place of residence.

Happily the landscape, which here really marvelous, gave me the opportunity to interrupt the conversation in which I was entangled. Just as we were passing between Rolanc and Nonneneverth.

### BERYL'S BLIND BABY.

BY RUTH EVERETT.

[Although in the form of a story, the enclosed is simply the conclusions arrived at by one of the foremost teachers of the blind, in the world, after an experience of fifty years. It might be of the greatest help in the world to mothers of blind babies.]

As the months of the little life crept along, a dread agony clutched poor Beryl's heart. Her son was beautiful, healthy; he grew. "But, surely he should begin to notice things by this time," said the trembling mother to herself. "Other babies of his age lie looking at their hands. They coo and crow at the wonder of having fingers and thumbs."

In certain ways, and at time of physical danger, the maternal heart is as brave as a lion. But when confronted with the danger of an affliction to her only child, an affliction which is beyond the power of men of science to alleviate, at such a time the loving mother becomes as timid as a hare. And there comes a time when the weight must be known and borne.

In dread of even mentioning that at which her soul trembled, Beryl began a series of experiments. She took her baby into the bright light; and, looking down into his eyes, as if she hoped to read in their depths that her fears were groundless, she held glittering objects before him and tried to attract his attention; the while her heart was heavy within her, the conviction of that which she was afterwards called upon to bear was taking its firm hold of her intelligence.

Still keeping her own counsel, Beryl took her baby and, alone, set forth to consult the greatest oculist our country has ever known. The sympathy which burst forth from the doctor's noble heart, after he had ascertained the sad truth, was like a wall of sunshine. It made itself felt as the all-persuasive sunshine does; without spoken words. Words must ever and always be inadequate for such occasions.

"The little fellow is blind; and the case is hopeless. I tell you this, in all sympathy for you, believing it best for your own good and for the child's good. Never permit any oculist to experiment upon him. They could only disfigure him. They might put out his beautiful, though sightless eyes, but they could never bring life to those paralyzed optic nerves. It is not in the power of man to do him any good. Your baby is blind; hopelessly, totally blind."

Beryl's lips quivered as she pressed them upon her baby's dimpled hands. And then, she went forth alone. Went to her home with her blind baby hugged close to her aching heart. Once within the house, the pent-up tears

gushed forth. Gently putting the child on his little bed, the mother knelt down beside him, and the flood-tide of her woe found expression.

"Oh, my son! my own sweet son! Must you always live in a world of darkness? Will you never see your mother's face? My baby! my baby! my baby!"

When she came forth, she was calm; but they could see that she had suffered more than many women do in a lifetime. She was full of sad thought, and her only confidant seemed to be her baby. Looking down into those sightless eyes she would say:

"Baby! mother must do the right thing by you. But, unfortunately, poor ignorant mother does not know what is the right thing. Mother will have to begin her own education. She will have to qualify herself to teach her son. Mother must learn what is done for such as you, sweet one. Will my darling be patient with his mother, for indeed, she will do the best she can?"

And the woman thought and read and investigated and then she went to that grand old man who was the pioneer of the teachers of the blind in our country. Beryl introduced herself, and at once went to the heart of her subject by saying:

"Doctor, my baby is blind; and I want to talk to you about his education."

If the woman standing before him had not been so seriously in earnest, it would have seemed an occasion to laugh. But she had presented herself and her cause in all honor and good faith and was now accepted by the doctor on her own recognizance. Albeit, the good man said:

"But, my dear woman, the child is too young, even for the kindergarten class. He cannot be more than six to eight months old."

To which the soft voice of the mother, that voice so full of sorrowful determination, said:

"I know that my baby is too young, even for the kindergarten class, doctor, but do you think I am too young for the muttergarten class?"

"No, I do not think you are too young to begin that study; and I am persuaded that you will become an honor to your teacher. So now tell me in what way I can serve you."

"Ah, I do not know, doctor. That is exactly what I want you to tell *me*. My baby is blind, and you are the most distinguished of all our teachers of the blind; hence, it is to you I come for instruction and guidance." Her lips trembled and there were tears in her eyes, tears in her voice, as she went along. "Of course, his future has to be considered; and—and—I—I never thought of having any work of this kind to undertake. I am so ignorant. I don't know what I ought to do."

She broke down in sobs; but quickly recovering her self-composure she said:

"I have not quite accustomed myself to the awful reality. It seems so hard."

"It is hard," said the doctor; "very hard, indeed. Your little son starts in life with a heavy handicap; and your young motherhood is darkly o'er-shadowed. But I sometimes think that those weights are put only upon those worthy to bear them; that every experience of life is for the best good of the one to whom it comes; no mat-

ter how hard it may, at the time, seen I want to help you carry your burden and I will. But *I* also have much to learn about this work in which I am indeed but a beginner. There are few mothers who would do what you have done, in coming to me with an infant in your arms; thus early to learn what is best for a blind child. Do you put yourself and this child in my hands to guide you to the best of my ability?"

"Oh, indeed I do." said Beryl.

"Very well, then, all is agreed between us. You go home; and do not lose faith in me if it should be some weeks before you see me; for I must make a study of your case. You will find that you can trust me, and I am just as thankful to you for coming to me as I can possibly be."

The doctor took Beryl's address and after a few words of farewell, the heart-sore young mother left the great buildings of the School For The Blind feeling cheered by the thought that she had found a wise counselor and friend upon whom she could rely for guidance.

And the doctor was alone with his thoughts. Alone with the study of the problem he knew he must solve. There were many things that mother must do, many things she must avoid doing. Most of all, she must not bring up a selfish, dependent child. An only child is given to selfishness and egoism; and with blindness added, the danger was greatly increased. How the thought of that infant and that woman, whom but a few hours before he had never seen, had taken hold of the best that was in him! Had taken his heart. That heart which is the heart of the spirit, and sees the mother, with her

holy love; but does not think of the woman.

Towards the end of the week the doctor rode out to see where Beryl lived. He found her in a beautiful home in the suburbs of the city. At the back of the house there was a kitchen garden, an enclosure for chickens, a dove-cote and a great St. Bernard dog; who was watch-out for the place. The doctor told Beryl that her son's education should begin at once. He took the baby fingers and clasped them around a toy he had brought with him. From this toy sound could be produced; and Beryl was told that if she would do this, she would teach her son the use of his hands and arms; with the connecting link, that his own movements produced the sound. Many visits did the doctor make to that suburban home. He supervised the gradations of the baby's sitting alone, his standing alone, his walking. Baby was early taught to help himself, to explore, to examine everything with which he came in contact. Until his toddling steps had gained a certain confidence, his pathway was made clear for him. But when he got to walking fairly well, if there was a chair or a footstool in his way, his mother was told not to jump to remove it.

Baby would get a little fall, then mamma must teach him to examine that which had brought him to grief. She must tell him all about it, put it under his hands that he might "see" for himself; and note all its various qualities. Had Beryl been inclined to do so, she had no opportunity to relapse into the unwise, indulgent mother, so carefully was she watched by the doctor. Baby went on voyages of discovery from one room to another,

and when he got a little older, he took more venturesome journeys, out into the yard. He made acquaintance with Bruno, the chickens, the pigeons, by having these animals put under his hands; thus gaining accurate knowledge of the difference between hair—like that on his own head, and hair like that on Bruno's back; and the feathers on the chickens and pigeons. He learned that dogs walk on four legs, birds on two.

Encouraged to feed the animals, they soon associated his coming with a treat; while *he* learned what they ate, how they built their nests, laid their eggs and hatched their young.

Bearing in mind that he was exercising for health and strength, Beryl kept him out of doors as much as possible. In extreme weather, both mother and child kept warm by exercise, not by extra clothing. Nor was the increase of health and strength by any means the only gain. As little difficulties were met and overcome, the child learned courage, self-reliance; learned to be a man. Whereas, pampering, brushing away every difficulty, would have made him a selfish dependent. He was taught at once to offer mamma, or any other lady, the most comfortable seat in the room, the daintiest bits at table.

Baby was encouraged, not forbidden to investigate the construction and uses to which nut-crackers, tongs—and later on, his little hammer and screw-driver—are put. He was taught to bore holes with the gimlet, drive in screws, split wood with his hatchet and axe, saw boards with his saw. He pinched his fingers with the tongs and nut-crackers pounded them with his hammer, cut them with sharp instru-

ments. But mamma's wise guide told her that her utmost care could not prevent these things happening to a seeing child. And that *her* son, like all others, must learn to bear wounds, bruises, pain.

By teaching him thus early to rely upon himself she would decrease the dangers that must be his, on account of his blindness, all his life. These things the doctor considered the first steps in the education of her blind boy; who, when still nothing but a baby, was accustomed to sit at a desk at fixed hours for a short while, four or five times a day; their great care was not to fatigue that bright, infantile brain. And baby was never kept there a moment after they saw him begin to fagg; which was found would occur in from fifteen minutes to half an hour.

He had a drawer in which all his little tools, toys, models, slate and pencils, his box of colors were kept. Mamma taught him the names of these articles and all she could about them. By his regular time at the desk, and the drawer in which he kept his things, baby was taking his kindergarten course on systematic study and orderly habits.

By the time he was four years old, baby had learned a good many things; and thus early his mother learned that he had a taste for music and a gift at figures; which he began to add together of his own accord. The doctor told Beryl that this was an indication that now a little real study might begin; and advised her to get some blocks with the raised letters on the four sides; other blocks upon which were the raised figures that mean one, two, three and so on, to the blind.

Baby made these combinations in a shallow box, having a wooden rule which could be screwed down and thus fasten the words the child had formed.

Mamma taught him the points of the compass and the value of coins, from a copper cent, up to a gold double eagle. She made him weigh things in his hands and then upon the scales. She taught him the names of measures, from gills to gallons, each of which he felt with his hands. They played games of guessing how much, eggs, apples, nuts, potatoes and the various grains used to feed the animals on the place, would weigh; testing the accuracy of each guess by actually weighing the articles.

Beryl found an almost inexhaustible variety of ways in which she could amuse and instruct her blind baby. After he had mastered the letters on the blocks, mamma got some sheets of stiff paper with embossed letters on them; and the task of teaching him to read began. By the time her baby was six years old, the proud mother had the satisfaction of knowing that he had more useful knowledge in his bright brain, than the average seeing child of that age has. In addition to which, he had fixed habits of study. At the age of six, Beryl began to teach him the keyboard on the piano, and a few simple tunes. More as a means of diversion and mutual amusement, than as a beginning of his musical education, into which she was, however, looking, with wise forethought and holy purpose to therein become his teacher, his friend and guide. But she now told him that he was no longer her baby, but her little boy, prepared, and well prepared, to enter school.

## COMMENT.

### SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

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GEO. P. BROWN, Editor

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BLOOMINGTON, ILLINOIS.

ocratic, *viva voce*, control of the funds and their expenditure by authority of a direct vote of the members of the association itself should be provided for. Her argument was directed mainly to the charge that individuals cannot be trusted to be honest, and no member, as appears from the unanimous vote for the constitution, cared to condemn all men including himself as having a price.

Another section of the constitution is not satisfactory to all, and notice was given by Superintendent Carroll G. Pearse of Milwaukee, that an amendment will be proposed at the next meeting of the N.E.A. to section No. 3 of article No. 5 of by-laws. This section now limits the membership of the National Council to sixty. Superintendent Pearse proposes that the membership of the council be made 120, the term of membership to be six years, and twenty to be elected each year.

President N. C. Schaeffer won high praise for the perfect fairness and the able and expeditious way in which he conducted this important meeting.

Of the general sessions the first touched the heights and sounded the depths of purpose and principle for the meeting in the address of President Schaeffer on school aid to the peace movement.

The Department of Elementary Education, with Mrs. Alice W. Cooley of Grand Forks, N. D., as president had one of the strongest programs. Dr. Henry Suzzallo's paper on "The Story and the Poem" made an impression for good in a work which must always be emphasized. Another valuable discussion in this section was the paper on "Expression by Hand" by Superintendent I. C. McNeill.

An advance step of much importance to the nation's treatment of the Indians is being taken by Francis E. Leupp, United States commissioner of Indian affairs, and his fifteen-minute talk to the Department of Indian Education, was a baptism of the right spirit for all education of our dependent children. In his management of Indian affairs, Commissioner Leupp is doing away with the large non-reservation schools which take the children perhaps hundreds of miles from their homes, and train them "away from their parents" and estrange them from the surroundings to which they will return. He is building up

### SOME ECHOS FROM THE N.E.A.

The Los Angeles meeting of 1907 takes its place in N.E.A. history as accomplishing some important things. The required action was the adoption of the new charter, constitution, and by-laws and reorganization under the new name of the National Educational Association of the United States. This was accomplished without a dissenting vote. There was one speech made in opposition to one of the by-laws, the one which puts the management of N.E.A. funds in the hands of the five members of the board of trustees. Miss Elizabeth Shirley, formerly a teacher in the schools of Omaha, contended that the dem-

the little reservation day school, and intends to give the Indian child, right at home in close touch with his own people, the industrial training he needs, and to insist on elementary education in English and common school branches. His principle is that the family must be lifted up with the children. This is sound for the work with all delinquents and dependents of whatever color.

One of the things of much significance to the growth of a more intelligent school sentiment among the people, which must be credited as accomplished at the Los Angeles meeting, was the affiliation with the N.E.A. of the six largest organizations of women in the country. These are the Mothers' Congress, the Federation of Women's Clubs, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, the National Council of Jewish Women, the Association of Collegiate Alumni, and the Southern Association of College Women. This affiliation is secured through the establishment of a department called the Educational Department of National Organizations of Women. The following general principles put forward by the committee on affiliation, point out the object of the movement. The work at present will be directed to collecting and publishing through the aid of the N.E.A., a set of compact and simplified statistics showing how the various states compare with each other as measured by the requirements of these principles. In addition the women ask to be taken into consultation on the best methods in both home and school for producing high character in the youth of the nation. The five general principles are as follows:

"All children of the United States should be educated; therefore, in every state we will work for a compulsory school law, backed by a good child labor law."

"Suitable school buildings should be provided; therefore we shall endeavor to obtain in every community a well-built, well-equipped, well-cared for building in which to carry on the school work."

"Teachers should be thoroughly trained and adequately paid for their work; therefore in every state we will seek to secure normal schools of definite standard, minimum professional requirements, without which no one may be permitted to teach, and a minimum salary for less than which no one will be asked to teach."

"Schools should be under expert supervision in order to accomplish their best work; therefore we will urge that in every state provision be made for placing all schools under the care of trained superintendents."

"School work to be satisfactory should produce three results in the pupils—knowledge, efficiency and character; therefore we will make the effort to introduce in all schools training for the hand as well as for the head and definite instruction in ethics and civics."

The normal school section was the only department that put on war paint and paraded the spirit of the disappearing struggle against the co-ordinate unity of civilization which used to be shown by the Indians of this western country. The universities were attacked as the trusts,—the mighty monopolies,—in education that would terrify the normal schools and crush the small college. The resolutions tentatively adopted require that candidates for admission to normal schools have the same preparation as to enter college, and that the normal give three and four year courses to these students. In the discussion, Mrs. Ella F. Young thought that the attitude of the universities had not been overstated, but she held that the normal schools could make their work so attractive as to appeal to those graduates of high schools who should come to them.

Another new department added at Los Angeles was one devoted to technical or trade school education. The extension of the common school on this line seems to be necessary for those who cannot take higher education, and, because of the length of time spent in elementary and high school work, and of their already acquired educational qualifications, are loath to begin at the bottom and under the time wasteful system of apprentices. Private enterprise, and in some states like Massachusetts public provision separate from that for common schools, have so far been the only effort made to meet this need. It is well that those like Dean Monin of Armour Institute who are leaders in the field should unite with the N.E.A. The questions to be solved are large and pressing.

The Los Angeles meeting did not escape the usual by-play from serious matters of tinkering with reformed spelling, except that it succeeded in appearing more dignified than ever. Contradictory resolutions were passed by the council and by the active members, so that the secretary in the future printing of the association would seem to be safe only in doing as the honorable and law-abiding public in general do, namely, follow the standard recognized by the dictionary as the present best usage.

The Los Angeles newspapers, and especially the Los Angeles Times, are to be commended for the space given to the pro-

ceedings and the care in printing the full reports of the discussions given each day.

Cleveland was chosen for the next meeting. Superintendent E. G. Cooley of Chicago was elected president of the N.E.A. The council elected Joseph Swain, of Swarthmore, president. G. A. B.

#### NEW SCHOOL LEGISLATION FOR MILWAUKEE.

In 1905 the legislature of Wisconsin passed a good school law for Milwaukee giving the city a board of twelve directors elected by direct vote of the people to represent the city at large, giving that board control not only of the management of the schools but of the erection and care of its school buildings. The law, while not so complete or effective as the St. Louis law, resembled that law in its general features.

In the spring of 1906, before the board had time to act on the report of its committee recommending a change of readers, a restraining order was served upon the members of the board to prevent them from discontinuing the use of the old readers. But, before the completion of the first suit, when it was seen that it could not be successful, another suit was begun upon a technical question to invalidate the entire school law. This suit also was carried to the supreme court which refused to invalidate the entire law but decided against the law in part, declaring that the members had been improperly selected and could not retain their seats. A bill was at once introduced in the legislature, which was in session, to re-enact the law substantially in its original form but correcting the defect pointed out by the supreme court.

A fierce attack was then made upon the legislature by certain disaffected elements in the city. The agitators who tried to change the law demanded a large board elected from wards.

The fight was waged with extreme vigor before both branches of the legislature. Local political influences were enlisted to get the Milwaukee representatives to favor the changes demanded; threats and other forms of persuasion were freely applied. These methods were successful in securing the votes of something more than a majority of the Milwaukee delegation against the re-enactment of the present law. Fortunately, however, the committees on education in the two houses of the legislature were made up of exceptionally well-informed and courageous men. They listened with the greatest patience to every argument presented, pro and con, and after several weeks of discussion unan-

imously recommended to both houses the re-enactment of the law substantially in its old form. The fight was carried to the floor in both branches of the legislature and every known maneuver for delay and amendment, and to secure the defeat of the law was resorted to. But in spite of these efforts the law passed both houses by a vote of practically two to one.

This gives Milwaukee a school law substantially in the form of two years ago. The city is fortunate that it has not been the first among the cities in the country, as some of its citizens tried to make it, to take a backward step in its form and methods of school organization and management.

Every well wisher of the Milwaukee schools should be glad, and the people of Wisconsin are to be congratulated upon the independence and upon the quality of backbone which the members of the Wisconsin legislature have shown in this matter.

#### DR. C. E. CHADSEY ELECTED SUPERINTENDENT AT DENVER.

The change made by the board of five members in the superintendent of schools at Denver, Colo., indicates modern tendencies in regard to school management. Superintendent Louis C. Greenlee was a strong man as a superintendent under the conception of the duty of the public school which is yet, perhaps, the one most generally held. He has the honor and personal friendship of his fellow townsmen in a high degree. The vote of the board making the change stood three to two and the new conception prevailed by but one majority. Dr. Charles E. Chadsey is elected because he stands, in his preparation for his profession of teacher and his maintained attitude of progressive study as an investigator of controlling educational principles, for the conception that teaching has new problems to meet in reaching, so as to secure the best results, every individual child in the city. The people feel that their schools should do more for some children than they do and reach others they now fail to hold. Neither the people nor the board of education feel that they can direct the needed changes. Therefore they look for one as superintendent and advisor who has the qualifications of studious insight based on such an extensive intellectual preparation as will make him an expert. Not many years ago business men chose as superintendents of their factories men of experience rather than men of scientific training. Now the trained mind is in demand and if the man is yet young so much the better. This is the new conception of a superin-



tendent of schools and Dr. Chadsey is such a man. In honoring him with this position the board honor the work of the modern professional training schools.

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#### DR. E. G. DEXTER, SUPERINTENDENT AT PORTO RICO.

The appointment of Dr. Edwin Grant Dexter to the superintendency of the schools of Porto Rico emphasizes again the modern demand for trained professional experts as the executive officers of our schools. This demand means that the people realize there are new problems in common school education to be solved, and that the tendency here as in other lines of work is to depend on men who have examined the known facts in a wide range of investigations, and possess a trained power of analysis of these facts for use as an aid in determining new policies. Dr. Dexter's predecessor, Roland P. Falkner, was an eminent statistician and trusted adviser of government commissions because of his power to use statistics in a way to clear up problems of different kinds. This power, trained by a study of education itself, is apparent in all of Dr. Dexter's work as an author and as head of the department of education of the University of Illinois. The statistician proves his value directly when he is able also to do the executive work in carrying out his deductions. The many friends of Dr. Dexter in Illinois and elsewhere will wish him success in this new work.

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#### EDWARD C. DELANO.

In the death of Edward C. Delano Chicago loses its oldest district superintendent. This office he had held for forty years and he was connected with the Chicago schools for over fifty years. His has been a life of the most faithful and efficient service to the public schools. He was a teacher and the kindly friend and adviser of teachers in their work with children; ambitious to render every possible service to the children and the teachers in his charge, and to those taking the burden of the general management of the school system. His high standard of success and devotion is possible to every one and stirs the heart with the profoundest respect.

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#### THE PLAY GROUND ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA.

This association, which is but little more than a year old and boasts but 408

members, organized and held in Chicago on June 20, 21, and 22 last one of the most inspiring meetings and the greatest exhibition of the year for all interested in having proper provisions made by cities and by every school for children's play. Today Chicago leads all other cities in the world in the play grounds provided and the care given to this side of the lives of its children. The supervisors find that the children using the city play grounds during the summer have better health than country boys and girls, and are better morally and socially.

This movement for better conditions for children's play ought to appeal to every teacher. Principals and superintendents in all towns of ten thousand people or more ought to get the assistance of the national association and organize local associations and interest citizens and city governments in the work.

While it is natural for the teachers to be leaders in this movement it is proper that it should be organized directly under city or town control and connected with the provisions for parks as the grounds should be large enough to provide for beauty as well as play space. The movement should appeal to the people, and the work of the play ground association be another interest in the children of the town government and of the people themselves from that of the schools. In an early issue we will give a fuller account of the work of the Chicago association. All interested in extending this movement should write to Dr. Henry S. Curtis, the secretary, at 205 Ouray Bldg., Washington, D. C. A system of local secretaries is provided for by the national committee. "The Playground" is a monthly magazine published by this committee and edited by Seth Thayer Stewart of New York. The subscription price is \$1.00, and address 8 Astor Place, New York City.

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#### MODEL COUNTRY SCHOOL HOUSE.

Western Illinois Normal School is trying the experiment of a model country school. It agreed to supply an experienced teacher for eight months without expense to an adjoining country district, the school to be an adjunct to the normal school as a training department. The school house was remodeled to suit the modern idea. The account, as given in "The Sequel" does not report the course pursued or the results for the first year just ended. As a practical experiment, every detail in management will be of value to the friends of country schools and a bulletin pertaining to the same will be specially valuable.

## SPOKANE HIGH SCHOOL.

More than 1600 students are expected in the fall term. The building has been enlarged by the addition of eight rooms and the gymnasium remodeled.

Henry M. Hart, formerly principal of the Butte, Mont. high school takes charge of the Spokane high school this year. He succeeds David E. Cloyd, who goes to the principalship of the Ogden, Utah, high school.

An administration building for the high school to cost \$40,000 has been contracted for, and a north side high school building is to be erected at a cost of \$65,000.

## ALASKA DIVISION OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

On April 1, 1907, Mr. Harlan Updegraff, of New York, was appointed Alaskan assistant to the commissioner of education, at a salary of \$2400 per annum, and on May 1, 1907, he was designated as chief of the Alaska division at a salary of \$2500 per annum. Mr. Updegraff was born in Iowa in 1874, graduated from Cornell College, Iowa, in 1894, received the degree of A.M. from Columbia University, New York City, in 1898, and has nearly completed the requirements for the Ph.D. degree. He has been principal and superintendent of public schools in Iowa, principal of the Girls' Latin School, Baltimore, Maryland, and was for two years assistant in philosophy and education in Columbia University. Mr. Updegraff left Washington in the early part of June on a tour of inspection of the schools and reindeer stations in Alaska.

Doctor Sheldon Jackson, who was appointed general agent of education in Alaska in 1885, retains his title and position as a member of the Alaska division with duties in the bureau at Washington.

## WANTED—THE DECEMBER, 1905, SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

A state normal school wants a copy of *School and Home Education* for the month of December, 1905, to complete its files, and we want several copies. We will extend his subscription two months to any one sending us a copy of this number.

**BOOK TABLE**

**BRAIN AND PERSONALITY**, or the Physical Relations of the Brain to the Mind, by Wm. Hanna Thomson, M.D., LL.D. 8mo., cloth, 320 pages. Price,

\$1.20. net. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York.

This is a thought provoking book. Teachers especially will find an intense interest in the clear deduction that personality uses the brain as an instrument in thinking just as the hand or the eye is used. Dr. Thomson's style is vigorous, and he presents the facts of modern physiological science showing the relations of certain areas in the surface of the brain to special mental functions.

If the brain as a physical organ did the thinking which creates consciousness it would seem to be a legitimate deduction that it would learn to do this in a physical way, a way which might be described as adjustment, and that education should be only the direction of this adjusting process. Dr. Thomson as a physical scientist does not, of course, claim to demonstrate anything directly of personality in its non-physical aspect, but he does point out very clearly that there is no indication that the brain does the thinking except in so far as it serves as an instrument of the thinker in the same way as other organs of the body do. Education, therefore, is concerned with the training and cultivation of the brain's power only as an instrument, and the highest duty of the school must be to make the richest possible provision for the culture of the self active soul. The school, then, must be concerned with the matter used and the personal influence exerted, that is with high thinking, broad sympathies and earnest purpose, as being even more important than organic habits and tendencies to adjustment.

The author is very successful in making his subject clear without the use of technical terms, and he avoids metaphysical discussions. He deals only with a thing of physics—the brain—and shows the limits of our knowledge with regard to the self-activity of personality which we may draw from the modern remarkable discoveries of brain areas related to mental functions.

**THE MAKING OF A TEACHER**, a contribution to some phases of the Problem of Religious Education. By Martin G. Brumbaugh. Ph.D., LL.D., superintendent of the Philadelphia public schools. Fourth edition, 8mo., 351 pages. Price, \$1.00. The Sunday School Times Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

This book of Dr. Brumbaugh's should continue to find a wider and wider sale, for it is a most happy and fit expression of the really fundamental elements in both the spiritual and professional preparation of a teacher of children. The subtitle defines this

book as a contribution to the problem of religious education but every chapter almost is equally applicable to the common school. No teaching can rise above the menial task of but supplying information and skill to self-educating minds which does not become by its influence on the soul a religious education in the sense Dr. Brumbaugh advocates for the work. It is equally true, also, that no church can rise above being a mere dogma which does not become an influence in the education of the soul as a being by nature religious and aspiring to know the truth and do the good.

The basis of education is the power of self-initiative, and therefore, as Dr. Brumbaugh points out in various ways "a rich life is worth more to the young learner than a rich curriculum." The need of all schools is for great souled teachers so trained that they can quicken the activity of the pupils into this product—a *rich life*. The training this volume undertakes to outline most particularly, seeks to secure in the teacher that insight and power of vision which will enable him to discover the specific need, and know how to provide for each pupil in those crucial moments for all education when the young soul must have personal guidance.

Dr. Brumbaugh has discussed the training needed in all of its essential phases and with much detail, putting the emphasis on the vital things. The fully equipped teacher must know how the mind operates, be able to express the educational principles involved, and be skilled in determining methods of teaching. The titles of some of the chapters will indicate how thoroughly the subject is covered. Fifteen chapters are given to principles of mental life and to methods under such headings as "How Knowledge Reaches the Soul," "Guiding Principles in Attention," "Retention and Recollection," "The Building of Ideals," "The Use of Symbols," "Facts About Judgment" "Laws of Teaching," etc. There are also two chapters on the personal equipment of the teacher, one on the recitation, three on Jesus as an ideal teacher and several chapters on religious education making twenty-eight in all.

There are many clear, strong sentences we would like to quote from this book. The following on the change of sensations to percepts is typical of Dr. Brumbaugh's style. After describing the nervous system as the sentinel of the soul, and the sweep of sensations to the brain he says: "In the brain they undergo a change. At one instant they are physical forces, the phe-

nomena of the physical realm; they may be measured, and in general treated as are other things that are physical or material. At the next instant they have undergone a transformation. They shed their material qualities and take to themselves spiritual qualities. They are no longer things of the brain and of the nerves. They are now things of the soul. They have passed from the field of the physiologist to the realm of the psychologist."

G. A. B.

HERRICK'S TEXT-BOOK IN GENERAL ZOOLOGY. By Glenn W. Herrick, B.S.A., Professor of Biology in the Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College. Cloth, 12mo., 386 pages. Price, \$1.20. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

In this book, each branch of the animal kingdom is introduced by a familiar and accessible type. The discussion of this type expresses in an organized form, the details of the work already supposed to have been done in the laboratory and field and brings out the characteristics of the branch of which the type is an example. After the various forms of the branch have been studied, their characteristics are summed up, their adaptations to environment and their economic significance are discussed, and lastly, a clear, concise classification of the group is given. The book is suited for use in any secondary school, and meets fully the requirements of the New York State Education Department's course in zoology. It will create an interest in nature, train the powers of observation, and give a good acquaintance with the lives, habits and activities of animals.

#### AGRICULTURE FOR BEGINNERS.

"I have been asked to recommend some farm book for the children to read during the summer. Anything which will direct the child's attention to the wonderful processes of nature that are enacted before him, will enlarge his life and make it better worth the living. There is a very good selection of books on nature study which children should have the opportunity of reading. I know of nothing better than Burkett's *Agriculture for Beginners*, (Ginn & Company, Publishers) price 75 cents. It is entertaining, instructive and inspiring, and suitable for both boys and girls." —From the *Educational Bulletin*, Ohio State Grange.

# SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

Vol. XXVII.

OCTOBER, 1907

No. 2

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## EDUCATIONAL SURVEY.

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### **Illinois' Present Educational Need.**

In the last number, mention was made of the present great opportunity for educational advancement in Illinois through the commission to be appointed by the Governor to codify the school laws. The delay in the appointing of this commission gives encouragement to some of the most devoted friends of the secular and educative institutions of the state, that the *personnel* of the commission will be the most capable that can be secured. There is certainly no more fitness in selecting this commission exclusively from the school masters than there would be of selecting a commission to propose legislation for the regulating railroads from the officers of railroad corporations. The schools or the rail-roads should be represented in either case, but all classess of worthy citizens are interested in the education of the children.

But back of all this there is need of greater union of conviction and effort among the educational forces of the state. In this regard the organization and spirit of unity in Indiana is practically ideal. The fields of educational endeavor are as distinct there as elsewhere, but there is a unity of spirit and effort in all these, which is now practically the director of educational legislation in that state.

In Illinois there is a prevailing discord among the leaders in these respective fields which is discouraging and portends disaster. It is said that the General Assembly is practically under the dictation of the county superintendents in all matters that affect that office, and that they oppose all legislation that looks toward a higher grade of qualifications in candidates for county superintendent.

We are only reporting what seems to be a wide-spread sentiment. We know that in some counties the office of the county superintendent is growing in efficiency. Where that is the case there is no objection to higher requirements for the office.

The situation would be improved by a better organization of the leading forces of the state. If the superintendents and principals in cities and counties would meet together for the study of educational conditions with the desire to promote the common good, much would eventually come of it. There is a common basis upon which all patriotic teachers will stand when they see that it is common.

The school-masters' club, organized years ago, was thought by its promoters to look forward to a union which would eventually represent the educational forces of the state for the good

of the state, but it has never risen to the level of its opportunities.

The present occasion which seems to give an opportunity to Illinois to stand upon the shoulders of the other states and, from the study of what is and what ought to be, to construct a school system superior to any other, is an inviting one. It seems to be the Governor's thought that the school men are best fitted to do this work. Certainly the *educational* sentiment of the state should direct and perform it, but there is a large and influential *educational* sentiment outside the institution we have named the school.

But the school sentiment should be a moulding influence in the work. Just what is the school sentiment in Illinois is unknown. One of the ablest school men in the state is advertising, in his addresses, the need of a definite and commanding purpose in education. It would seem as if the educational sentiment of the state ought to have a clearly defined purpose of the school before formulating a system of procedure to realize that purpose. The labor of codifying the school law of Illinois is an arduous one. If it shall be done in five years and be well done, that will be quite as soon as the most capable commission available will feel ready to make a final report.

**Prof. R. M.  
Wenley  
To the English**

Prof. R. M. Wenley, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Michigan, has contributed to the *University Review*, the principal academic magazine of England, an interesting paper on "*The University in the United States.*" In

this contribution he has compared and contrasted the great universities of England with those of the United States, and he makes promise of superior greatness in the future for our own Universities if we shall rise to our opportunities.

After describing our system of determining degrees, he continues:

"As I see it, the main objection to this system issues from its failure to put any premium, even the slightest, upon *academic* distinction. Accordingly, students think of "university honours" as appertaining to official positions in undergraduate associations and the like, never in terms of intellectual attainment. So the tendency to rest content with a bare pass meets a most favourable environment. Did space permit, I could emphasize this at length and with many apposite illustrations. On the other hand, the flexibility of the plan is marvellous, and accommodates admirably a community where social changes are rapid and startling. But it seems to me productive of a more serious evil, one to which President Hadley of Yale, has adverted in his last Report, though rather in a different connection. In the first and second years of the university course not a little work is included that can be overtaken with sufficient efficiency by "instructors" (Angelicé, tutors) who possess few or no claims to the ability and distinction requisite in a university professor. The school teacher type—that of the average board school in England—thus makes entrance into the arts faculty, bringing his undesirable associations. And, if a "tute" remain in this grade of service long enough, very pos-

sibly, by simple lapse of time, he may receive promotion to a professorship; if the head of his department be a weak man, he will recommend this promotion almost certainly. It thus happens that men attain the chair who are fit to be no more than school sergeants, and they innoculate the whole academic body with their baleful notions. So one frequently finds sitting on the same senate and exercising the same powers over high educational policy, scholars equal to the best anywhere, and other individuals whose presence on an English or German staff would be nigh inconceivable."

As an example of what the students consider "university honors" won by a "distinguished" student of Michigan University, as set forth in a book published by his fellow students, Prof. Wenley gives the following:

"Freshman Glee Club; Smoker Committee; Athletic Committee; Senior Reception Committee; Social Committee; Class Football Team; Michigamua (senior society). In the same book the ablest A.B. of the year passed absolutely without comment."

The same standard of honors is descending into our high schools. To seek anything beyond a mere passing mark is frowned upon by the opinion of the class, in too many of our secondary schools.

In those departments of our great Universities that might be called the Industrial-Scientific, the great American Universities lead those of England. It is in the Humanities, once regarded as the prime essentials of a liberal education, that American Universities are weak. They are leaving off making men to make animated machines.

By "the humanities" we mean the *liberal arts*, those that make for the freedom of the soul directly. They have come into disrepute in America chiefly for the reason that great free souls have, in so many cases, ceased to be the teachers of them, and for the additional reason that the universities are following the lead of the masses who mistake bigness for greatness. To be big they must admit students who have received no adequate preparation for either the work demanded of them or the free life that should characterize the University.

The spirit of the natural scientist is in command in the liberal arts department. It is analysis not synthesis, the death not the life of the soul, that our liberal arts tend toward. Our secondary schools seek the graduates of our Universities for teachers of the human and humane studies. Certainly that is the source from which they should come. Sit through a recitation period of their class in Shakespeare and it will be made clear why the graduate of a secondary school never reads Shakespeare again. Human machines accurate and skillful, and many of them, should come from our universities. But their greatest work is to make men.

If the writer apprehends the purpose of Prof. Wenley, it is not less preparation in our great schools for the advancement of the material welfare of mankind, but more zeal and effectiveness in producing men.

**Temperance  
In the  
Schools.**

We have read in the *Journal of Education*, published in England,

"We have heard from chancellor of the exchequer that we

are under the influence of a wave of sobriety: and, more recently, the manager of a catering company has been forced to confess to a discontented meeting of share-holders that profits flow more freely from the spout of a teapot than from the beer-barrel or the wine-cellar."

A similar wave of feeling mingled with conviction is also influencing public opinion in America, and especially in the southern states, which is resulting in legislation which seeks to promote sobriety. It may prove to be only spasmodic effort prompted by the general conviction that drunkenness and the drink habit are two of the most active causes of the destruction of human life and of property that menace society. Men who drink are barred, more and more, from employment in vocations where sobriety is an important factor of safety. They are as dangerous in some the professions as in the industries.

There are indications that society will enforce sobriety as a means of self-protection, while it still remains indifferent to its moral benefit. It is the *immediate* danger that stirs man to action in the present stage of his evolution.

"The temperance movement" in this country has sought to use the schools to show the injury produced by alcohol to the organs of the body. In this it has been but partially successful, chiefly because of the mechanical and uninteresting methods of the instruction. It has been largely a matter of "cram," prescribed by law, as distasteful to the teacher as to the pupil. This legislative effort has practically come to an end. The legislators

at no time felt that there was a call from the country for what an enthusiastic group of women demanded of them. The mass was indifferent.

But the time has come for the schools to take up the subject anew and set to work in earnest to interest the children in a knowledge of their own bodies—how they grow, and how their growth is arrested. Many of our public schools are teaching successfully the process of the growth of flowers and of vegetables. They are successful when the children become interested in tracing this process and in learning what promotes and what arrests it. By similar methods, and along with the plant study, that which promotes or arrests the growth of their own bodies can be taught. When it shall be seen by the pupils to be a personal matter, an interest will be awakened which it is impossible for any abstract, *ex-cathedra* presentation to produce. This is only urging the teaching of hygiene, to be sure, but what is the teaching of temperance other than what promotes and what arrests life. There seems to have grown up in this later generation, a conviction that the moral influence of the child's deeds is not to be taught with any directness; that it must be left for him to "work it out" by the process of suggestion. We will grow out of that notion when we learn how to make direct moral instruction interesting to the child. Then direct instruction of the immorality and sin of poisoning the body so that it cannot be a fit instrument in the development of the soul, will be found the surest and shortest route to the goal sought by education.

(Some Reflections.)

**The  
Contribution  
of the  
Normal School**

The essential contribution made by the normal school to education has been the conviction which has been planted and nourished in the public mind that the teacher must *know* something more than the subjects he teaches, and *be* something more than a drill master in these subjects. The general public has no distinct notion of what this something is. The normal schools themselves, taken as a body, have not yet been so successful in weaving this something into the web of the life and teachings of their students as they have hoped to be.

The difference between the normal-made-teacher and the self-made teacher, both having the same mastery of the subjects taught, does not yet convince the normal schools nor the discriminating public that these schools are giving this something which it is their special province to give, in as full a measure as the needs of education demand. David P. Page, in New York, Horace Mann, in Massachusetts, Richard Edwards, in Illinois, were themselves beacon lights of this something more than intellectual knowledge. They illustrate the heart-knowledge and the will-knowledge which are as essential qualifications of the teacher as is a mastery of the systems of intellectual knowledge which compose the curriculum of study.

For generations a popular fallacy has prevailed that the education of a

human soul can be done in sections—mis-called the religious and the secular. The secular again became divided into the theoretical and the practical, which latter had two standards of behavior: the theoretical standard which would have each man do to others as he would have those others do to him; and the practical standard of “doing to another as he will do to you.”

So the life of the learner has too often become partitioned off into box apartments, and the self has become a divided and disconnected group of selves, each a stranger to the others. Society has taken on a similar grouping, and today we have political leaders and teachers who feel justified in disobeying every command of the decalogue for political success. And society accepts this plea and continues to elect them as pillars of the state—the state being a separate stall from the rest of life.

So it appears that the great contribution which the normal school was created to make to education has been made only in part. The present tendency seems to be to emphasize the intellectual knowledge and the mechanism used in the school above the ideals and purposes that make for the “high minded men” and women who are to “constitute the state” that is yet to be. There is a growing protest against the doctrine that it is the commanding function of education to adjust the lives of the growing generation to the environment in which they live. The function of the school is to produce high-minded men and women, and only such as can



be made to measure up to this high standard should be encouraged to continue in a normal school and become teachers of the young. There is a difference between "high minded men" and *minded* men. The teacher cannot teach what he is not. The minded man lacks much of the heart and the will—the ideals and active purpose—that belong to him who is high-minded.

Now I take it that the something that distinguishes a normal school is that high ideal and commanding purpose so manifest in the three men I have mentioned, who were the pioneers in normal school extension. Without that, it is not a normal school as distinguished from the college, the academy, or the trade-school.

I would not be interpreted as saying that adjustment to environment is not one of the agencies in the work of education. The definition of education is the use of the appropriate environment to stimulate the self-activity of the learner to educate himself. The teacher's sole duty is to select the environment and lead the child to make use of it. But the teacher's personality is the larger half of this en-

vironment, and the environment in which the child lives is the source, in great measure, from which the teacher draws. Some good people are talking as if the sole purpose of education is the adjustment of the life of the child to the environment in which he lives:—as if the social order were the Kingdom of Heaven. This conception seems to be running as an under-current or flowing as an over-tone through modern society.

And what is modern society? Goethe has given a vivid picture of some of its characteristics in the "Walpurgis Night" in the first part of Faust.

We seem to be at the parting of the ways on more than one of the roads that together form the highway of human life. The child's sole reliance at the present time is the home and the school for wise influence in the choice of his ways. In many cases the home does not count as a helpful influence.

The crying need, above most others, is that the normal school supply this leaven, which I have tried to describe, as its contribution to education, and in the largest measure within its power.

#### A STUDY OF THE DEPENDENT AND THE DELINQUENT CHILD IN THE HOME ENVIRONMENT AS A SCHOOL PROBLEM.\*

J. K. STABLETON.

This is a report of the work attempted during the past six years in Bloomington, Illinois, a city of thirty-thousand inhabitants. A summary of the Illinois Compulsory School Attendance Law, the Juvenile Dependency and Delinquency Law, and the Child Labor Law, is necessary to

make clear the conditions under which the work has been carried on.

The Compulsory School Attendance Law provides that every child between the ages of seven and fourteen years, not physically nor mentally incapacitated, shall attend school the full number of weeks the school is in ses-

\*Paper read at the Los Angeles meeting of the N.E. A. in 1907.

sion in the district in which the child lives. It makes the proper enforcement of this law the duty of boards of education and empowers them to employ attendance officers to look after delinquents. The law holds the parents finable for non-compliance and on failure to pay the fine they may be committed to jail.

The State Child Labor Law supplements the Compulsory Attendance law, and takes away the temptation that comes to many parents to take children from school for purposes of gain before the children have had even the *minimum* of school privileges the state gives them. This law forbids that any child between the ages of seven and fourteen be employed for wages during any part of any day while schools are in session, and holds both parents and employers responsible for its violation.

A dependant child is one practically without a home, or for whom the place it calls home provides little or nothing that is educative. When the child is almost or wholly without support, it is, by law, dependent.

The Juvenile Law declares a child to be a delinquent when he is incorrigible, or does not have home control, or is found living in the companionship of wrong doers, or when he is guilty of petty crimes and is on the road to becoming a criminal.

If the parent or parents are not able to enforce proper behavior, or if the child cannot, or will not, support himself, as a last resort the court may take charge of the child and place it in care of a probation officer or commit it tem-

porarily to some institution to be cared for as a state or county charge.

These laws must all be thoroughly understood by the school authorities whenever an attempt is made to reach the dependent and the delinquent children in their home environment.

Some one may ask, "Is there not more danger of breaking up homes than there is hope of building them up by the enforcement of these laws?" Let us say at the beginning that above all things, the school must stand for the unbroken home. Nor do we believe that all homes can in any sense be ideal homes. It will take generations for the evolution of even a common type of a home out of some habitations yet those homes that are only a shade better than that which the brute prepares for its offspring, must be protected in the possession of their children, and the touch of the school must be an inspiring touch, rather than the hand of steel that would snatch away the children in order to train them in a better environment.

We must remember that death does not respect the populous home of the poorest day-laborer, nor that the bread winner may be stricken with a wasting illness, and that want comes in as a result. Even in our small cities there are children whose parents care so little for them, or have so little power of control, that a controlling force outside the home must be exercised to restrain these children from criminal lives, and give play to their energy along lines that will fix habits of useful activity. Not the vengeance of the law, but the allurements of love is the keynote in all this work; but the fact

that there are proper laws, makes the labor of love effective in many cases.

Six years ago there was no systematic effort made to care for the dependents and the delinquents by the school authorities in Bloomington. When children, and especially those of the delinquent type, dropped out of school they were left largely to themselves. At the time the superintendent stated to the board that there was need of an attendance officer in securing the attendance of many who ought to be in school. At first the board doubted the value of such assistance, but finally provided it. The officer's work soon commended itself to the board so strongly that they would as soon think of doing without teachers as an attendance officer.

About that time two boys, who were dependents, and had also become sadly delinquent, were brought before the county judge. The superintendent of schools petitioned the court to send the boys to the Glenwood Manual Training School for boys, a private school to which the law of the state gave the county judge the right to commit dependent or delinquent boys. This entailed on the county from which the boys were sent, the payment of ten dollars per month for each boy committed. The judge had never before been petitioned to make such a commitment, and doubted whether the county board of supervisors would approve the expense. Finally the judge asked the superintendent to consent to his sending the boys to the State Reformatory, but the superintendent said "no." The judge then consented to send the boys to Glenwood school for one month. Within that time the

county board of supervisors would be in session, and the superintendent could present the case to them. A month later he met the supervisors, thirty-five in number, and was given an opportunity to plead the boys' case. When he had finished speaking, a number of the men said "You have won your case." But action was referred to a special committee, and the matter was not settled. Two days later the superintendent met the committee to which it was referred. He pleaded with them to give the boys the chance of a school instead of a prison, and not to send them to the Reformatory, but all to no purpose. Two of the committee were from the country districts and did not believe in wasting the county's money on boys. The case was lost; the boys remained at the school for five months, however, when they were finally transferred to the State Reformatory, thereby saving the second wealthiest county in Illinois \$240 a year.

Six months later the case of two other boys came up for a settlement. They were not bad boys, but were for a time at least, without a home. The drunken, beastly, sot of a father had been committed to jail for non-support of his family, and after being there for sixty days was perfectly willing to continue to live at the county's expense. The mother's health had failed and she had become an object of charity. She was anxious to find some home where the boys could be cared for until she recovered sufficiently to support them. No one wanted the boys. The only possible opening for them other than the county infirmary was the Glenwood School, but how to get them

into it was a knotty problem. The matter was presented to the Associated Charities by the superintendent of schools. Two of the most influential men who were interested in the charity work of the city said that they would go with the superintendent, if he would again make a plea before the board of supervisors. This was done. He spoke to the entire board and again to the committee. His plea was granted, and from that day to this, the county judge has been an interested and most helpful co-operator in all cases that have come before him. He said to the superintendent, "I wished you to educate the supervisors; now you have done it." From that time to the present he has never spoken of the expense to the county when it has been necessary to dispose of an extreme case; nor has the board of supervisors ever offered an objection.

While extreme cases are very few, relatively speaking, the certainty that the school authorities can appeal to the court for help prevents the possibility of many cases coming into the courts. The school authorities in Bloomington have during the past six years come into a close working system with the Associated Charities, parents' clubs, the city physician, the visiting nurse furnished by one of the city's endowed hospitals, and the courts are working together to help the dependent and the delinquent children in their home environment. The school has been the center from which radiates the influence that calls upon these other agencies to assist in trying to make the best possible conditions for the child. In a city of thirty thousand where the ward schools do not enroll

more than six hundred pupils on an average, it is possible for the principal with the aid of the teachers and the attendance officer, to know the home environment of almost every child, and the superintendent can know the home surroundings of all of the most desperate cases. He can so know these that by devoting but little time to the consideration of them he can advise intelligently in each case. A very few minutes spent, from time to time, will keep him in close touch with all the unusual cases that come up. Court cases are called on Saturday afternoon.

The truant officer is looked upon as a friendly visitor in most cases.

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But there are parents who have no love of their offspring. Two or three years ago, at the opening of school in September, the attendance officer was called day after day to look up three boys belonging to one home, no one of whom was over twelve years of age. Finally he reported the case to the superintendent. The mother who was sick in bed, had six children, these three boys being the oldest; she had been divorced from her husband three weeks before and the family were dependent on charity. The Associated Charities knew the case well and gave the same report. These three boys were on the street all of the time, when not in school, and were at school only when taken there by the attendance officer. They were fast taking on the worst element of street life. On the advice of the school authorities, the mother as soon as she was able, brought the boys before the county judge to have them placed in a home of some kind; the St. Charles Home

for boys had been recently opened. They were attractive children. The mother had no wish to part with them longer than until she could take care of them. At the request of the superintendent of schools, the judge declared the children a county charge, thus making the county responsible for their control; and he appointed the woman superintendent of Associated Charities their probation officer. The children were permitted to remain with the mother, but subject to the probation officer. The superintendent and the judge advised (and the mother concurred) that the oldest of the three boys be placed in a suitable private home for the school year, if such a home could be found. Some one connected with the school found a home for this boy where he remained till the close of the year. From this time on the boys were regularly in school. The mother as she grew stronger, did sewing and with some aid from friends, made a living. The father was wholly worthless, who felt no parental responsibility for his children and no affection for his family.

Another case: A drunken father, an illiterate, dirty mother, a home not more tidy than a hog-pen yet the mother-love strong and the father-love still burning. It was a large family, and none of the children had received any good benefit from the privileges of school. John, the boy of whom I am speaking, was twelve years of age. He had entered the public school but remained but one day, and then left to enter one of our Catholic Parochial Schools. He soon dropped out of that and was fast becoming one of the street gang made up of a criminally inclined

class of boys older than the compulsory school age. The school attendance officer called at the home and talked with the parents explaining to them that the boy must attend school and that if they did not keep him there, and away from the companionship of depraved older boys during school hours it would be necessary to compel them to do so. The priest of the parish talked with the parents and tried his persuasive powers, but all to no purpose. Teachers, attendance officer and priest, were alike unable to stimulate the parents to act. The priest finally said that he could do no more. The superintendent had the parents brought before the county Judge to show cause for not keeping John in school. It was a revelation to the parents when they were told that the school could call upon the Judge and that he could even take their child away from them altogether because they did not properly care for him. "Good Lord, Judge," said the woman, "you don't mean to say you can take my child away from me when I hain't beat him. I didn't believe you could take a child away unless I beat him." My boy's sick he ain't able to go to school." The boy was not strong physically and needed better attention than his people were giving him. The physician who had attended him a half-year before, when a serious surgical operation had been performed, was present in court to testify that the parents' neglect was the cause of his delicate condition of health. He also stated that his home was not a fit place for the child.

The boy had a rupture and should wear a truss which would cost only one dollar and a half. Although the father

received good wages he and the mother preferred to spend the money for liquor and let the boy suffer for want of a truss. The Judge explained to these people his power in the case, and finally told them that at the request of the superintendent he would give them an opportunity to do better. The father said he would rather give up his drinking than to give up his boy. Then on condition that the parents at once secure a truss for the boy, and that they keep him properly clothed and in school every day, the Judge permitted them to keep him, but one of the public school officers' probation officer was put in full control of the boy. They got the truss for the lad, kept him well clothed and clean, and in school every day during the year.

A few weeks after the boy's case had been thus settled, the superintendent met the boy's priest and the priest said he thought a mistake had been made. "The boy should have been taken from the parents and sent to some home." The latter part of the year the priest and superintendent met again and talked of the boy. When the priest learned that the boy had not missed a day from school, was well clothed and clean, he said: "You have done the right thing, I'm sure you have." Not long ago the father met the superintendent on the street tipped his hat and smiled. The superintendent smiled back and said, "You have done *well* by the boy." The father thanked him while his face beamed with a feeling of renewed self-respect.

The boy was his boy and he had a right to him; but he had learned that the state through its officers had a right to demand that the parents do

*their best* by the boy. The school was the only center in the community enough interested and sufficiently powerful to bring this about.

As this work is now organized, it is very easy to call on the city physician or the visiting nurse. The principals can secure the assistance of either of these officers at any time by calling them over the 'phone.

A family had recently moved from a neighboring city into one of the poorer wards. The two little girls had been in school but a few weeks when they dropped out. The character of the children was such that the teacher and principal thought there must be trouble in the home, else they would be in school. The principal visited the home instead of sending the attendance officer. She was kindly received and found both the girls and the mother with sore faces and sore heads. It was a poor home and poorly cared for. The mother did not know what was the matter with them, but hoped the children would soon get well and be back to school. The principal explained that she could send a woman who could tell them what to do to cure the sore faces and heads—the visiting nurse, who often helped the school children in their homes when the mothers did not know what ought to be done. The mother was pleased and the principal sent the visiting nurse, who found the mother and the girls in bad condition as the result of vermin. She directed them how to clean up; took the proper remedies to them, and followed up the case until the heads and faces were healed. The nurse gave some very wholesome lessons to the mother and directed in

cleaning not only their heads but the home. Some will say, that this mother must have been a good-for-nothing or this would never have arisen. But she was a mother and her children were school children; and their's was a delinquent home.

The object of this paper has been to show in some detail an attempt on the part of a school to extend its influence to the children of the delinquent homes for the betterment of the children and, incidentally, for the stimulation of the parents. The visiting nurse has been very helpful. She enters the home with a freedom that the city physician cannot, and wins the confidence of the mother by helping her to care better for the little ones.

In some instances where there is reason to believe that the child is being kept out of school under a false pretense of sickness, the simplest remedy has been to ask the city physician to investigate and 'phone the attendance officer. This invariably brings the child into school to stay, because the parents know that between the city physician and the attendance officer there is no longer a possibility of escape.

Now and then there are homes so

immoral that the children of the schools need to be protected from the contaminating influences of the children from such a home, and the state must protect the child from the blighting effects of its own home. The question sometimes arises, "Is it right for a child with such knowledge of evil life to be placed with little ones whose minds are free from the taint that comes from such associations; if not, what should be done with the child?" The state, as I have said, owes this child protection as well as others more favored. In one such case, the superintendent petitioned the court and had a child placed in one of the state schools where for the first time in her life she was free from the destroying environment of her own home.

If the superintendent of schools is the organizing head of all the available forces in the community for the uplift of the dependent and the delinquent children, and there is this combined effort, results can be secured that would not be possible in any other way.

The work need not burden the superintendent if properly organized, nor need it take an undue amount of his time in a city of thirty thousand population.

## HOW TO MAKE BIBLE READINGS INTERESTING TO CHILDREN.

MARGARET H. J. LAMPE.

### II

The immediate result of the conversation reported in the last number was that I resolved to stop the perfunctory *use of the Scriptures* at opening exer-

cises in that school and to interest the children in the Bible by the paradoxical method of reading something else to them.

You should have seen the alert attention resulting from my statement that for a change I would read to them for some weeks from other Bibles than our own so that they might make comparisons.

After some words of explanation concerning the author and the character of his work, the following selections from the "Maxims" of Ptah Hotep were read to the very evident delight of the audience, who at first were merely curious about a book six thousand years old, but soon showed an eager interest in the verses themselves.

Be not of your learning vain;  
Treat the simple and the wise  
With like honors. Open lies  
Art's great gate for all, and they  
Who have entered by that way,  
Know how still before them flies  
The perfection they would gain.  
But wise sayings hidden are,  
Like the emerald that is mined,  
Or the hard-won gem slaves find  
Packed within the quartz and spar.

#### IRRITABILITY.

Keep your temper, grumble not,  
With your neighbor be not cross,  
Speak not rudely, oil your tongue,  
Compliment is gain, not loss:  
He who prone to passion hot,  
Of his words no longer master,  
At his neighbor raves, is wrong.  
Let not trifles irritate.  
Be vexed, you but create  
Sorrow that is sure to stay,  
When the pet has passed away.

Candidates for the police force in ancient Egypt were required to memorize the following:

Are you enroled a member of the police,  
Son of the guardian of our public peace,  
Then, though the why you may not understand,  
Your duty do, with firmness give command,  
Fulfill instructions just as they were sent,  
And mind the words, not what you think was  
meant;  
The master knows why so the order ran,  
Yours not to comment, you are the message  
man.

When it was suggested that I would skip the "Advice to Teachers" and

"Advice for Husbands" as probably of no interest to the pupils, they were more than eager to hear them.

#### TO TEACHERS.

If thou a teacher be  
Set forth thy plan.  
As thou decidest, see  
Thou play the man.

Do what is good and just,  
Perfect, complete;  
Deeds that when thou art dust,  
Still shall be sweet.

Never let words decide,  
Flattery disdain,  
Words such as foster pride,  
Words that make vain.

#### ADVICE FOR HUSBANDS.

If thou art wise, of things at home beware,  
Love thou thy wife, and love her without  
lack,  
Fill thou her stomach well, well clothe her  
back.  
This for her person is the chiefest care.

See that her ointments fail not, and caress her.  
Each day she lives, her heart's desire fulfill,  
For know that honoring his lady's will  
In kindness, honors him who doth possess her.

Never be brutal, or brute violence use.  
Tact, it is tact will influence her desires,  
Think what she aims at, and to what aspires,  
What she regards and what she most would  
choose.

This is the way to keep her heart at home,  
Repel her—lo! a gulf between you grows!  
Call her, display your love, she sees and  
knows,  
Open your arms, she to your arms will come.

The following stanzas elicited the comment from some of the boys that the world must have been a good deal the same thousands of years ago that it is now.

#### FOR RULERS.

Him who tries to rule by dread  
God in turn will rule by fright;  
He who boasts that fear is might  
God will from his mouth take bread.

If a man through fear be grown  
Wealthy, God will claim his land;  
If he boasts a bully's hand,  
God shall break the bully down.

God wills none should make afraid;  
Grant the people means to live  
Peacefully; they will re-give  
Toil not grudged, but gladly paid.



## FOR LEADERS AND JUDGES.

If, as a leader, thou art called to give  
 Judgment on others, see thou take great care  
 So that they conduct be esteemed fair,  
 And strive without reproach thyself to live.

Who hinders law, for violence makes way.  
 No mob the upper hand can ever gain  
 If Justice on the judgment seat remain,  
 And Right-is-might, not Might-is-right hath  
 sway.

The ends of justice change not, ever one  
 In scope; so doth the father teach the son.

Though perhaps of interest, it would take too much space to report the thoughtful comments made to me afterwards by various pupils. Next some of the sayings of Confucius were read. The young people were very much surprised by their similarity to Bible precepts. I do not remember what was used for the following few days but when I then asked the pupils to listen carefully to certain of the Proverbs of Solomon and consider how they compared with the recent readings, they were received with marked attention.

Charlotte remarked to me, "I don't believe I ever really listened to that chapter before though I've heard Supt. X. read it dozens of times. You know he almost always does read 'from Proverbs when he leads the exercises, until we're all sick of them. Honest now, I never knew that was beautiful before." "Same here," said Florence; "that's because we all listened to it as if it were a new thing since you asked us to compare it with the others." "Yes," said Louise, "that was it. We never thought of anything in the Bible as if it were a piece of literature and had any qualities of style or any beauty or anything. Of course we knew it was good for us in a religious way, but we just took it for that only like a medi-

cine and never supposed there could be anything pleasant or interesting about it." "Suppose we compare a little further from time to time," I suggested. "Oh, yes, do go on as you've begun; it makes morning exercises so interesting and they've always been dead or sleepy before."

Soon passages from the Rig-Veda were compared with certain Pslams, after which several pupils came to me with the original discovery of the hitherto utterly unsuspected fact that David was a poet. I mention this because it is significant.

During the next few weeks short selections from the Vedas, the Zend Avesta, the Talmud and the Koran were received with varying degrees of appreciation.

At this point it may be well to answer the question that will occur to many as to the desirability of introducing young people to such literature by saying that while certain individual passages from the scriptures of other-religions were particularly admired for good and sufficient reasons by different pupils, those who did any real thinking expressed themselves to the effect that their own Bible (to their evident surprise), taken as a whole, possessed far greater literary beauty and variety than any other, and seemed broader in its application to all conditions and human life. Along with this there came frequently a gratifying statement of increased respect for other forms of belief.

In another school, in order to awaken interest in the Bible, I tried a very different experiment and one that succeeded beyond my expectations. Hiding the Testament in a larger book

so that the children could not see from what I read, I said to the pupils in the large assembly-room: "The Caesar class have been reading about a battle and a storm at sea and I want to read them an account of the wrecking of a Roman ship in the Mediterranean. Their class time being short, maybe the rest of you will be willing for me to use the time of morning exercise to-day and tomorrow for this purpose."

I had hardly begun reading the story of Paul's journey from Acts when every boy and most of the girls, to use a newspaper phrase, "began to sit up and take notice." The usually listless attitude of mind and body vanished. Attention was perfect. "Bully story—Oh, I mean a fine one," said Oliver approvingly as he passed my desk on his way to class. "Why didn't you finish it and let the classes wait?" Harry, the next in line, whispered "Wish you had."

Two days later, Stella and Emma came to me. The former said, "That story was interesting and we want to know what book you were reading from. I can't place it. I never heard it before yet the language seemed familiar." "There's something about it puzzles me too," remarked Emma. "It's as if I ought to know it. Who was that Paul anyway? What was his other name?" Harry, standing by was trying to read my face. "I've been thinking and thinking too," he said. "Oh say, girls, *could* it have been the Paul in the Bible? I believe it was by the way. Miss L. looks amused." "Yes" said Emma emphatically, "that explains all. No wonder it sounded familiar. Why we've had a whole series of sermons on the life

of Paul at our church this winter and we must have heard it read in connection with them." "You must have learned a heap from those sermons and readings then if you didn't even recognize them," said Harry. "But you're no worse than the rest of us. Miss L. fooled us good and proper by saying she'd read us a story of adventure. It's the truth though. That's what it is, but hardly any of us would have listened with half an ear if we'd know it came out of the Bible." "Why?" I asked. "Oh, I dunno," answered the boy with an air of preferring not to tell. He acquiesced by emphatic words when Stella replied earnestly in his stead, "Because we never knew before that there was one thing really interesting in it. Oh, you needn't be shocked. It's always been made dry and stupid to us. You read it as if it were a description of something real. I mean you didn't have that solemn, mournful sing-song tone that almost everybody uses in reading from the Bible—It always sounds so dreary one can't get interested. I'm sure we never knew before that there was a story of *real life* anywhere in it."

So many teachers may find it hard to believe that the impression of "unrealness" is a serious hindrance to older pupils taking an active interest in Scripture readings that I cannot forbear quoting what a lady exceptionally well versed in general literature once told me of her personal experience. Said my friend, "I was more than twenty-five years old and had certainly read and studied seriously for many years when, some one happening to speak of the color of Mose's hair and

eyes as familiarly as if he had been some acquaintance, it came to me with a sudden shock that none of the Bible characters had ever been real men or women to me. I had quite unconsciously regarded them all in exactly the same light as I had the characters of the Greek mythology. I don't understand why that was but it is the truth." This lady was the daughter of a highly educated minister and had spent her life among unusually well-read people.

But to return to the children. After hearing the description of the beginning of Solomon's temple one morning, Bert said to me with the air of having unexpectedly met an old friend, "Say, that King Hiram of Tyre you read of this morning who furnished the cedar and the skilled workmen, wasn't he the

same we had in Phoenician History last week? Yes? That's great. Why then King Solomon must really have lived too." "Why, of course he did; didn't you know that?" I asked. "No, I never did think so. You see I never believed any man could have had three hundred wives and so of course I thought all the rest about him was just a yarn too. But now I'm going to read some more about him. Wish I could have seen that temple. I don't believe there's any building as grand as that now-a-days though I've read of a good many and seen some."

(To be concluded.)

[The next number will contain some hints on making Bible characters real as well as interesting to children.]

## THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE.

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In the teaching of English either of two very distinct aims may be kept in view: 1. To give formal knowledge and historic insight. 2. To give power and facility in the interpretation and the use of English as an instrument for the expression of thought and feeling. If the first of these aims looms large before the teacher, he will teach linguistics, spelling, punctuation, grammar, rhetoric, philology. His demands will all be made upon the memory of word and form. His method will consist in relentless drill upon the arbitrary usages of those who write English. He will insist upon formal accuracy, criticize mistakes in penmanship and punctuation, and praise those who indent their paragraphs and spell as orthodox

writers should. His instruction may be specific, systematic, positive, and thorough. His examination tests will be conclusive, and his records may always show the exact standing of each of his pupils.

But if the teacher is chiefly conscious of the second aim, he will teach literature, conversation, art, oratory. His purpose will be to enlarge the life experiences of his pupils, to add to their general culture, to stimulate the imagination, to refine the taste, to develop appreciation of thought and feeling and power and beauty. His method will be varied and general but will always include the extensive and intensive reading of choice literature, the listening to those who

speaking well, and both oral and written expression of that which the soul yearns to utter. He will insist upon worthy thought, upon clearness of expression, and upon fidelity to truth. He will criticise false reasoning and morbid feeling. He will rejoice at every evidence of clear thinking, vivid imagining, or healthy feeling. He will praise the virile and facile expression of truth and beauty. His instructions will often be indirect, general, and un-systematic.

The teacher should remember that mental energy cannot be divided between form and content without great loss. Attention to form will render the content commonplace; attention to content is certain to lead to neglect of form. In speaking or writing there should be a smooth, rapid, unbroken stream of thought. If a question of diction, spelling, punctuation, or grammar is projected into consciousness, this thought stream is interrupted and the quality of the composition suffers. If the study of the formal side of English is over emphasized or dwelt upon too continuously, in any of its phases, there is certain to come a time when the habit of observing form will seriously, even disastrously, interfere with the power of expression. It is most difficult, indeed, for an expert penman or a professional speller to write anything that is worth while, and a skilled proof-reader can scarcely understand, much less enjoy, what he reads. In these cases the attention is given to the form, and that means that it is taken from the thought. The evidence upon the other side is quite as strong: few of those who are called great in the field of literature—poets, essayists, nov-

elists, orators,—have been philologists or technical scholars and many of the most virile and imaginative have been noticeably careless as to traditional forms. They were great because their mental energy was given to constructive and creative work.

This seems to me as indisputable psychological principle. If so, perhaps the following pedagogic suggestions may be considered as its chief corollaries: Intensive and systematic drill in English forms as such should be confined to those years in which the imitative faculties are most active and mechanical drill is indicated. At any stage of development, specific drill and instruction in English forms should be so isolated and conducted as not to interfere with the free play of the mind in the constructive work of composition or the imaginative work of interpretation. Certainly in the high school and college, perhaps in the elementary school as well, the highest mead of praise must not be bestowed for mere accuracy in orthography, penmanship, or grammar. Perhaps we should learn to write as we learn to talk, by the spontaneous imitation of good models; although there must be room for conscious and voluntary imitation of that usage which has the force of authority. The best teacher of English cannot ignore, he will not neglect, the formal side of his subject; but he will so subordinate it as to exalt the spirit to which the form ministers. Perhaps the best possible exercises for the mastery of the technique of written language are exact copying of various literary forms with pen or typewriter and writing from oral

dictation. These exercises should be attempted without any effort at composition and with little or no attention to the content of what is written. Thus may be mastered writing, spelling, punctuation, arrangement of paragraphs, sentence structure, idiom, diction, and choice of grammatical forms. To be sure, the adoption of this method by the schools would play havoc with the text-book business; but it would save a few years of time, achieve success where failure is now too common, and not kill the goose that lays the golden egg.

It were indeed pleasant if students who enter college, even if those who enter high school, were already so trained that correct English would be the rule rather than the exception. This is what the high schools and the colleges have been crying for and, at first thought, the desire does not seem to be wholly unreasonable. Disappointment in this particular has led the former to bitterly criticise the elementary school and the latter to say many uncharitable and uncomplimentary things of the high school. Even as I write there comes from the press a new volume containing a classified list of the mistakes that freshmen make as shown by the records of one of our great institutions. This book can be used as a mariner uses his charts and will render safe navigation in these dangerous waters. The chief trouble with all this is that such an emphasis upon form during the periods of childhood and adolescence as will attain the desired degree of accuracy will almost certainly destroy the power of literary imagination upon which worth-while composition depends. Perhaps it would be well

for teachers of English to remember that accuracy is not the chief quality of good English. As it is, I fear that the genius of expression is often rendered halting and self-conscious by the excessive formal drill of the schools.

But teaching, in its higher reaches, is a spiritual process and the artist teacher who would emphasize the spiritual in the teaching of English must be far more than a good proof reader. Perhaps a rich personal experience that his developed quick sympathies and a profound insight into life and a ready appreciation for truth and beauty in the expression of that life through language, are the most essential qualifications. Teachers possessing these qualifications may have taken the special English courses of universities; they must have looked deep into the human heart and been moved by the varying aspects of nature. They must understand the difference between the natural and poetic expression of one's own thought and feeling and the perfunctory writing of mechanical themes. They must know how to stimulate ethical and esthetic feelings and how to use the treasures of literature that they may minister to human culture and both form and strengthen character.

It is often said that teachers of English are over-worked. Many seem to be slaves to the drudgery of theme reading and correcting and to feel that those who teach English must have small classes and few daily recitations. Is it heresy to suggest that most of this drudgery is worse than loss of love's labor? In fact red-ink annotations to perfunctory school themes have but small influence upon the students who write

the themes. It would be better for them to correct each other's themes; and it would be far better for the teachers to read poetry, attend the theater, talk with their friends, and themselves write themes so beautiful and forceful as to be presented to their classes as models. The teacher of English needs to live a full life, to think and feel much, to read widely, to hear those who are gifted in the art of oral expression, and to practice speaking and writing. Drudges, proof-readers, mechanical writers, and persons who can talk should not try to teach English.

It is safe to say that for artistic method we are wise to go to the modern primary teacher rather than to the university. This is specially true if we are high school teachers. For the sake of its suggestiveness, therefore, I beg to present an exercise in English composition which it was my privilege to witness recently in a first-grade school.

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The children who had as yet taken but the first steps in learning to read were alert and eager. It need not be

added that they were enthusiastic and quivering with interest. Each in turn took his place upon a chair in front of the school to read a story to his school-mates. The stories were read from blank sheets of paper, the only injunctions being that they must be true and beautiful. And what stories! You could hear the song of birds, and catch the odor of roses and violets, and see the flashes of color among the trees, and feel the twang of sea breezes upon your brow, and see the dimples in the cheeks of cooing babies as these little men and women read (composed) tales of loving mothers, gentle friends, playful pets, wonderful excursions and experiences, all woven from memory and imagination. Mistakes were made and eliminated by substitution, the skillful teacher knowing how to do this without breaking the stream of thought or making her children timid and self-conscious. I wonder whether these children will do so well when writing college themes. And yet, Miss Wheeler, the teacher, called this a game, and the children thought they were having fun!

## A CHAPTER FROM ILLINOIS HISTORY.

GEO. P. BROWN.

[The following is a chapter taken somewhat at random from a young people's history of Illinois. The author is seeking to write a biography of the state after the manner in which he would write the biography of one of its citizens. The state is a soul and a body. The soul makes the body. The state is a will and also a form in which the will embodies itself. The state is both subjective and objective. The subject reveals itself in the object.]

Illinois is a good example of the development of a government for the people into a government by the people to that stage to which a government by the people has been yet attained. In the history of this state the stages are well marked from the chaos of individualism as a principle of free government toward that of institutional freedom, which wills the

freedom under law of every individual.

This chapter shows one stage of this growth before the idea of the state as an institution has been born in the minds of the people. The book is written, as stated above, for the young; the young in thought whether or not they are young in years. It is not a new idea, to consider a state as a personality or folk-soul, but it is seldom that the development of this folk-soul into fuller consciousness is intentionally followed by the historian as the biographer of an individual follows his psychological development. It is the conviction of the writer that one must study the institution called the state by a similar process in order to understand it as an institution, rather than as the combination and co-ordination of different mechanical forces.]

## CHAPTER IX.

*Beginning of Government by the People.*

Those who took part in setting up the state government and conducting it during the first administrations, were more familiar with government "for the people," than "by the people." Not many of the first settlers had taken any part in conducting the government under which they had formerly lived, and most of the citizens at the organization of the state had spent their lives on the frontier where every one was, in large measure, a law unto himself. Each was most interested in the exercise of his own free-will and in attaining his own personal ends, without much serious regard for the wills or the rights of others. The strenuous pioneer life of those times required "every tub to stand on its own bottom" —to use a pioneer phrase. He must look out for himself or perish.

The first citizens of Illinois were a band of hardy pioneers, being mostly farmers and backwoodsmen of whom Daniel Boone of Kentucky was a distinguished example. This group of men did not number six thousand voters in the whole state when it was admitted to the Union, and not one-third of those took any active part for some years in the election of the national or state officers and law makers. They had much to learn before a government "of the whole people, by the whole people, and for the whole people" could be established.

The school education of the early fathers of our state was very limited. A majority of them could not read, nor could they write more than their names. Gen. St. Clair who was the first governor of the North-West Territory,

twenty-eight years before the admission of Illinois into the Union, visited Kaskaskia in 1790 and set up the County of St. Clair, which then embraced the whole of the southern part of that section of the North-West territory which afterward became our state. He reported that he found it very difficult to find officers for the different districts of this county who could keep the necessary records, for "not one in fifty of those who were otherwise capable could either read or write." While these first citizens had no literary education the training gained in their pioneer life had made them strong and efficient in practical affairs. But they had no clear ideas of the duties of a state or of the proper administration of a state government. These are facts we must keep in mind as we read of their mistakes and the disasters that followed these mistakes.

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In setting up a state government, it was necessary, in the first place, to elect the officers provided by the constitution, and enact a body of laws. The constitution had been made *for* the people; it was not adopted *by* the people. Indeed the people knew nothing of what it contained before Congress had accepted it and declared Illinois a state on November 13, 1818, by a vote of 117 ayes and 34 naves. The people did not object to this exclusion of themselves from a direct voice in making the fundamental law by which they were to be governed, for they knew no better. They elected according to the provisions of the constitution, Shadrach Bond for governor, who was a farmer of limited education, but a man of marked ability who had

been a territorial officer. The people also elected a Lieutenant Governor, and a General Assembly composed of a Senate containing thirteen senators and a House of Representatives of twenty-seven members.

Governor Bond's first message was notable for the reason that it urged that the legislature should make provision for the education of the children of the state, and, also, because it recommended that a canal should be constructed which should connect Lake Michigan with the Illinois river; thus opening a water-way between the Great Lakes and the Gulf of Mexico. This would make the Mississippi river a highway of commerce between the east, the north, and the south. These two recommendations showed that Governor Bond was capable of becoming a statesman of high rank.

The constitution provided that the Governor and the Lieutenant Governor should be elected by the people, but that all other state officers should be appointed either by the governor or by the legislature, as the General Assembly might determine. This provision was one of the evils that flew out of that pandora-box of ills, called the constitution.

The first General Assembly chose the State Treasurer, Auditor, Attorney General, and the Supreme Judges. The Governor was permitted to appoint the secretary of state. But every successive Assembly changed this order to suit their personal preferences. Whenever the governor and the Assembly were mutually friendly the governor would nominate more of these officers and the legislature would

confirm them. When the governor had a mind of his own, the legislature ignored the governor and elected all these officers. This was government *for* the people but not *by* the people, and much confusion and dissatisfaction was caused for the reason that the citizens never knew what persons would be chosen to serve them; and, besides, it was a growing cause of dissension between the administration and the legislature. In the first seven administrations or twenty-eight years, no governor could ever be elected to a public office after the expiration of his term as governor, although all but one of them were candidates for some office at different times.

During this period every new legislature repealed most of the laws in force and enacted new ones. No one knew what the laws of the state would be for a longer period than two years. Governor Ford, who was prominently connected with state affairs and with every legislature from 1818-19 to 1847, remarks in his history of that period, "A session of the legislature was like a great fire in the boundless prairie of the state; it consumed everything. And again it was like the genial breath of spring; it made all things new." People remarked that it was a fortunate thing that the Holy Bible could not be "legislated upon" by the General Assembly, for "no one would then know," they said, "what is the law of God any more than he now knows what is the law of the state."

This is one illustration of the vague conception which our Illinois forefathers had for a "government *by* the people." It was not the general welfare so much as the personal interests



of the law makers that controlled legislation.

There was another thing which these forefathers did not know about "a republican government," and which must be learned if it shall be a free government.

At the beginning of our statehood and for long afterward it was thought that the candidate who was most widely known and was a personal favorite with the largest number of people, should be chosen to office without serious consideration of his fitness to perform the duties of the office. As an example of this, the first legislature elected William P. Foster, to be one of the judges of the supreme court. Mr. Foster was unknown to the people, having resided in the state but a few weeks; but he was a courteous, pleasing gentleman who set to work to capture the legislature and did it so effectually that he was elected to this most honorable and useful of the state offices. Foster was not a lawyer either in legal knowledge or in practice. He was utterly ignorant of the duties of a Justice of the Supreme Court. Governor Ford, in his history of the Illinois adopts the following quotation as a proper description of him: "He was the mildest mannered man that ever scuttled ship or cut a throat, with such true breeding of a gentleman that you never could divine his real thought."

He was appointed to one of the more populous judicial districts but had the good sense never to appear in court. After drawing his salary he vanished from the state, and figured thenceforth as a common swindler and moral leper in other states.

It took such experience as this much of it, to teach the early inhabitants of our state that it was the duty of the legislature to look first to the welfare of the people when they elect state officers or enacted laws for the government of the citizens.

The general feeling among officers even of the courts of justice, that their continuance in office depended on their personal popularity among the people and among those whom the people might elect to the General Assembly, is illustrated by the trial of a murderer where another judge of the supreme court than Foster was presiding. The trial had ended, the verdict of guilty had been brought in, and the judge was about to pronounce sentence of death.

The prisoner stood up and the judge addressed him as follows:

"Mr. ——— the jury in their verdict say you are guilty of murder and the law says you are to be hung. I want you and all your friends to go on ——— Creek to know that it is I who condemn you, but it is the law and the law. Mr. ——— the law allows you time for preparation, and the court wants to know what time you would like to be hung." The prisoner replied, "May it please the court, I am ready at any time; those who kill a body have no power to kill the mind until my preparation is made and I am ready to suffer at any time the court may appoint." The judge then said, "——— you must know that it is a serious matter to be hung; it can happen to a man more than once in his life; the court will give you until the next day four weeks. Mr. Clerk look and see whether this day four weeks can

on Sunday." It was found that it came on Thursday. The judge then said, "Mr. ——— the court gives you until this day four weeks, at which time you are to be hung."

The attorney general here interposed, and urged that a formal sentence be pronounced such as was usual and proper on those solemn occasions when "the life of a human being is to be sentenced away by the court."

The judge replied, "Oh, Mr. Attorney General, Mr. ——— understands the whole matter as well as if I had preached to him a month. He knows he has got to be hung this day four weeks. You understand it that way Mr. ———, don't you?" The prisoner assented and the judge adjourned the court.

Now this judge was not an ignorant as one might suppose, but a lawyer of some attainments, and an average man who held important offices in the state for many years to which he was elected by the people. He was a damagoge.

The incident is related here not to speak with disrespect of this judge, but only to show what was public sentiment in the state at that

time, and what was the concern felt by office-holders who were ambitious for further preferment, lest they should give offense to voters. Such must always be the result when personal popularity, and not courage and ability to discharge the duties of the office, is made the standard of a man's fitness to represent the people in the government.

Such incidents as those presented above show to the young reader the crude beginnings of a government by people who had never taken any part in conducting a government, and had had no opportunity to learn. From this beginning the Illinois of today has grown in the expensive but efficient school of experience.

When we compare the present with what ought to be, we may discover that there is much more to be done before the people's representatives in office shall always have an eye single to the public good in the discharge of the duties they have been elected to perform. A public office is a public trust, and that officer betrays his trust who sets his private interest above the public good while acting as a public servant.



## Within the School-Room.

A Department of Observation and Reports of Classwork and School Management Conducted by George Alfred Brown.



### The Course of Study.

11

Before taking up the discussion of the Course of Study in detail, it may be well to give a little preliminary consideration to its organization as a whole. In the modern school we find the work classified under about six general divisions as: (1) English, including reading, writing, composition, grammar, and literature; (2) Mathematics; (3) Science, including nature study, geography, physiology, biology, physics; (4) Constructive activities including manual training, domestic science, mechanical drawing and design; (5) History; and (6) Art, including music, drawing, clay modeling, etc. In some American schools and in most foreign schools another division is added in order to classify under a special form of instruction training given in manners and morals. This division is omitted from the above list not only because the subject of manners and morals is treated in so perfunctory a manner in our courses of study, being assigned generally to but a portion of the time for general exercises, but mainly for the reason that American schools are free to make ethical and essentially religious culture a primary element in all instruction. This is true because our school is an independent institution controlled directly by the people and free from the dictation of either political government

or any sectarian religion seeking to have some particular form or system of morals or manners taught the children.

A free development of the ethical and religious nature is a controlling purpose of the school rather than a separate subject of study. For instance, the common school can never become in any one of its departments, simply a trade school aiming only to transform the pupil into "a hand," for it would not then be a free institution but would be the servant of the trade. As the institution of the people, it must, in teaching a boy to plane to a line, do it by such a method that his power and will to see and tell the exact truth and to gain other qualities of character are thereby developed, also.

Accepting the six divisions given above as the present classification of the subjects to be considered in a discussion of the course of study, and recognizing as a controlling purpose of common school education, in the way of general culture, an adequate development of the child's ethical and religious nature, let us consider the problems of the teacher in some detail.

Beginning with the Course of Study in English, the first technical requirement of the school is that it teach the children to read and write. If the mind of the pupil were already mature, and the function of the school was to give the simple technical ability to read, a phonic method might be developed

ould be applied uniformly and mechanically to all such pupils. A common school has to teach six years olds, some of whom are already yet disassociated in their knowledge of the spoken word from the conditional personal experience which gives it its meaning. It must at the same time, stimulate mental life and direct the development of consciousness. Therefore the method begins with much oral work and play, directions for play and the production of stories, telling pictures, or what happens in a picture, or some excursion or other exercise. Written words and short sentences are introduced as occasion demands. Distinct enunciation is secured, and the long and short sounds and syllables are learned. In connection with simple songs, some musical exercises are used and tone relations displayed by the syllables of the scale. The teacher endeavors to arouse an interest in, and a power to interpret language, at the same time the new forms of reading and writing are acquired. To fully accomplish this it is necessary that the thought expressed by the words used for the lesson take root in the minds of the pupils before they begin to separate and recognize different written words. In order to talk the child discovers the meaning of the words which convey to others the definite ideas he wishes to express, and that these significant words he learns to construct complete sentences as a means of making his thoughts more definitely and effectively expressed. Similarly in this method of learning to read the child finds first the significant words in the written ex-

pression of his thought, and learns the words as they are repeated in many sentences. This is accomplished, of course, only by careful instruction. Since the child has no vital sense of need for the power to read which will compel his attention to the work of learning, it is necessary that he acquire an interest in the lessons in a way that will so touch his personality as to stimulate initiative activity. Only thus can the subject of English be made to perform, from the very beginning, its special function in the school course of expanding the soul through the expression of human thought.

To understand or to plan a course of study in English for the school in all of the grades, we must have a definite conception or theory of how the mind grows. This is to be acquired by a study of the conditions and practice of good teaching as well as of psychology and sociology. Reform movements in education and the re-actions succeeding them emphasize extreme principles. On the one side emphasis is placed on cultivating the growth of such qualities of individual personality as sympathy, courage, truth, aspiration, intellectual activity, and independence of judgment and action. This requires that the school be life, its activities and environment being made simple enough for the children to take direct part in the solution of its needs. The reaction on the contrary, emphasizes the requirements of preparation for taking part in the complex civilization of the present, the need of skill in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and of scientific knowledge of sanitation, foods, mechanics, civic duties, business methods, etc. These differing requirements are not mutually

exclusive, of course. The school does not have to be either a simple primitive society of undeveloped minds, or else a mechanical grind of training and instruction. The laws of education must include both in a rational and a natural process. The more complex the civilization, the more complex becomes the work of education, the more time it requires, and the greater opportunity for mind growth it gives.

The school can not isolate its work from the atmosphere and spirit of the community life without danger of arresting development. A prominent practice school announces that the grade at which a child has arrived in that school can be told by the world in which the child is living, whether he is a primitive man in the pastoral age, or in the migratory period, or whether he is living in the Greek age, or the feudal period, and the like. To the extent that this is really secured as an actual growth in the changing qualities of the child's mind, it put the child under artificial conditions and shuts him out from natural contact with his real environment. This isolation of his entire life during his school period is a handicap to the child.

There is a change of mental qualities going on as the child passes from kindergarten to high school, which corresponds, in a way, with the successive qualities shown in the stages of the civilization of the race, but the institutional characteristics of these different periods which distinguish them as successive human worlds, does not seem to serve as the best experience through which the modern child should pass in order to develop, within the period of a few

school years, the higher qualities of his own civilization.

Teachers should seek a method following the stages of mind growth in its culture epochs which shall interfere less than this one does with the relations of the child's personality to his own social environment. (These methods was referred to last month as the industrial idea. The criticism of this idea made then, and which will be taken up more in detail later, was that it gave too little attention to the organization of life's activities into purposes, to the needs of a growing personality and to the influence of the environment, which comes from outside, having their source in the nature of the mind and soul.

The culture epoch idea and the industrial idea lay emphasis, the one on the institutional and personal life's relations, and the other on the economic and co-operative inside, but both would apply to child theories drawn from mature life to the different stages of the development of man's civilization. The child of the race is not a sufficiently well developed mental condition to the child of the individual to make the law of genetic psychology of the race applicable to the genetic psychology of the individual. We are, therefore, forced back upon a study of the child under the best school conditions of the day as the place to find, step by step, the laws of mind growth, as well as the best ways of promoting this growth.

#### Is Nature Study a Study of Life or of Material?

[EDITORIAL NOTE:—A most helpful discussion of Nature Study for the school was given at the last meeting of the Central Teachers Association held at Jacksonville, C. R. Maxwell, of Quincy, contributed.

excellent paper on the phase of the discussion given in the title above. Our available space limits us to the following extracts which give the point of view of the paper.]

It is not necessary for me to define anew the subject, as one of the leaders in this movement has given us a most excellent definition, a definition that is accepted by many others prominent in this work. He says: "Nature Study is primarily the simple observational study of common natural objects and processes for the sake of personal acquaintance with the things which appeal to human interest directly and independently of the generalizations of organized science." Here, we have a definition that indicates the kind of material that we ought to study. The material that will appeal to children for it is the common natural objects that appeal to human interest. The material not the abstract; not the spectacular and wonderful but rather the common things which touch humanity. The definition may be criticised by the sentimentalist in that it does not give sufficient provision for the æsthetic side. But this would hardly be valid for we certainly ought to find beauty in the common natural objects which surround us. This definition also sounds the keynote that nature study is not a method, as we study independently of the generalizations of organized science. It means, also, that we must study nature at first hand. Mere book information will not suffice. It is to be observational study and not cramming the memory with facts of the classification of plants and animals. The functional side rather than the structural is emphasized. In this way, nature study is made concrete, vital, real, and not abstract, artificial, lifeless.

It seems to me, as I consider this subject, that the economic side should be prominent. The objection is raised that this is narrow; that it fosters the idea of commercialism; that it is not fundamental in the life of a people. I believe these objections are not so difficult to answer. It is not necessarily narrow for we amplify in any direction we choose. Any view is narrow when we do not show its relation. The right kind of commercialism—that which is concerned with the best for all mankind—should be fostered in all places and at all times. Even if the economic interest is not fundamental in the life of a people, we are justified in making this prominent for this is the motive which appeals most to the larger percentage in any community. After we have a foothold the other motives may develop. In the two movements mentioned in the first part of this paper, the economic motive was almost entirely neglected. We are beginning to understand the value of this approach. The best work in Nature Study that has come to my notice made the economic motive central. The work was the raising of strawberries in a school garden. This work made a close connection between the life of the school and the home life. The children saw that school work touched life problems. The children had a concrete definite problem upon which they were to work. There was also a motive for doing the work. All the children enjoyed having luscious strawberries for the table. To have such berries, it was necessary to have proper methods of cultivation. Some of the children saw an opportunity to earn money by raising strawberries. They secured plots of ground at

home for this purpose. Now, there was an attitude of mind on the part of this class that you do not find in a class that is doing work to merely meet the requirements of the teacher. School problems were life problems. The information gained in the school garden could be directly applied to the home garden. Problems which had their source in the home garden were discussed at school. In this way, the interaction between home and school which is so vital in educational work, was secured. This influenced all the school work.

We might enumerate the number of things which the child will learn while studying a topic of this kind. Perhaps this is not necessary as you see the trend of this topic. Many such topics could be mentioned, but the special topic any school will study will depend upon the environment. The same subject should be treated from different points of view in different sections of the country. Take the maple tree for instance, I would teach it differently to a class in Illinois from what I would to a class in Vermont. This indicates how Nature Study differs from science. The scientist would teach the maple tree as such, without respect to the human interest. In Nature Study, we must consider this interest, because this interest differs in different parts of the country. This points to the fact that it would be impossible to have uniform courses in Nature Study as we might in some of the other subjects. It is not entirely unique in that respect for local conditions must be taken into consideration in framing a course in any subject.

C. R. MAXWELL.

### **The Problem of Getting the Attention of a Class in a Way to Use it.**

I have visited a number of classes during the first week or two of school this last month and one of the best things I have noticed for the future work of these classes, is an attitude on the part of the teachers of respect for the personalities of the children. Each teacher was seeking an intimate acquaintance with the individual capacities and interests of her pupils.

These first lessons seemed to be quite tentative in character, as if the teacher expected to plan the work and organize the method of instruction to meet the needs of the children in the way which this knowledge of them would indicate as best. Such a spirit in the first weeks of school indicates that the teachers are able to make use of their experience, and to exercise a freedom in adapting methods which will keep their work from being formal and wooden, or a slavish following of some particular method, however good.

But teachers must begin as soon as possible the work the class is able to do, and order this work so as to produce both growth of mind in knowledge and development of power in the personality. I find some teachers are like some would-be business men, they are always getting ready to start something but never know until too late when to do it. A second grade class visited this month is typical of much work done under the supposition that to require any more concentrated attention of the children at any time is contrary to the spirit of the new education.

The lesson I heard was a sand table exercise intended to help the children picture some of the scenes in Hiawatha

and thus so direct their interest to details of Longfellow's poem as to give them an appreciation of some of its beauties and perhaps a desire to learn some of its verses.

The sand had been hollowed out through a large space in the middle of the table and glass laid in to represent the "Big-Sea-Water," but the sand was still bare when I came into the room. The teacher was just showing the children a very dainty little wigwam skin sewed into form from several smaller skins apparently, with the proper opening at the top and the most approved style of Indian architecture exhibited in the arrangement of door opening and flap. Some of the children took this and stood it in the sand near the water by sticking four or five small twigs, which the teacher produced, through the hole in the top and spreading them out at the bottom and pushing them into the sand. All of the children were interested in the ingenious sewing which exhibited the way the Indians had to piece skins together by devices of their own in order to get the right shape and size for a wigwam. But this curiosity was aside from the teacher's purpose. She brought the class back to the plan of representing the surroundings of Hiawatha in the home of old Nokomis.

*"By the shores of Gitche Gumee  
By the shining Big-Sea-Water  
Stood the wigwam of Nokomis,  
Daughter of the Moon Nokomis.  
Dark behind it rose the forest,  
Rose the black and gloomy pine-trees,  
Rose the firs with cones upon them;*

This verse was repeated by the teacher with the help of a line or two by some of the children. A number of fresh pine twigs were given out by the

teacher to set out for the forest. Those the children massed back of the wigwam to make a dark place, and one or two were put in front near the wigwam door.

Now instead of holding the children's attention to this verse while their interest and imagination were aroused and teaching them the verse so that all could express readily the music of its rhythm, the teacher continued to add details, such as producing a curious little birch bark canoe, which several children tried to find a place for as drawn up on the sand, but which the teacher finally put on the glass water with only the prow in the sand. Then the children's attention was entirely withdrawn from Gitche Gumee as the teacher brought out a full sized Indian papoose-frame with board and skin wrappings and, also, a little one with a doll papoose in it which she swung on a branch of one of the twigs near the wigwam. In examining these, curiosity got the better of all interest in Hiawatha until the bell for changing classes sounded.

It seems to me that the plan to use this recitation entirely in the setting up of the sand table imagery including in this some curiosities not mentioned in the poem, was largely a waste of time because it failed to make use of interest when it was keen. When the green twigs showed dark behind the wigwam was the time to appeal to the children's associative sense of beauty and appreciation, by holding their attention to the rhythmic descriptions of the poem and starting the class in the learning some of the verses.



## WANDERLUST.

MABEL ELIZABETH FLETCHER.

Little Miss Willis received Albert Golembreski into her already crowded ranks with inward rebellion. There was about him, as he shambled into the room with hanging head and protruding lips, that indefinable something that, at the first glance, for the wary teacher, sets aside certain children from the conventional little group that displays no hostility at the mention of the multiplication table, and has a feverish joy in dusting erasers.

"Another oddity," she thought wearily. "Haven't I fifty-five of them already? I never had such a mess of human nature before."

"He came here because over at the German school they whack him on the head," suddenly volunteered little Charley Wendt, as Albert passed before her desk. "He drew a knife on 'em though." Charley's little brown eyes snapped as he swished an imaginary blade through the air.

"Charles, will you get fresh water for the roses?" asked Miss Willis quickly. She smiled at Albert. "Here's a front seat you may have," she said easily. "The boy who had it didn't appreciate it, so I gave him an ugly brown one in the back."

Albert shuffled over and took possession. He eyed stealthily Frieda Blankenburg as she lovingly washed the top of her desk with soapsuds and water, and dried it with the hem of her blue calico skirt. Next he looked from under his long white lids at Emil Skuginna, who was proudly arranging a row of animal crackers in his pencil box lid.

"H'm!" snorted Albert Golembreski, and felt for his knife.

All that week he sat in watchful silence, darting quick glances here and there from under his long gray-green eyes. To Miss Willis, after the first few days when she had discovered that he knew little English and for some unknown reason seemed disinclined to display the wickedness the pupils ascribed to him, he ceased to be a problem. There was something peculiar about the flush that faintly colored his cheeks when she addressed him directly, something attractive about the glimmering smile that occasionally hovered about his rather fine mouth when he stared dreamily out at the lazy October afternoon. She promised herself to study him minutely when the primary supervisor should relieve the crowded condition of the room by transferring some of the children; meantime she could give him but the momentary attention of class time.

He demanded little else. Once he put a pin in the toe of his shoe and stealthily reached it over to spear Frieda Blankenburg, and once he started to drop a wet sponge down fat little Emil Skuginna's yawning collar, but the warning flash in Miss Willis' eyes sent his hastily back to his painful multiplication.

Then, to the mystification of Miss Willis, there came a change. One day after a hard music drill, she gave a comprehending glance at the tired little faces and drooping shoulders, and, folding her hands loosely before her, began to recite *Travel*. Directly in front of her was Albert Golembreski,

and he leaned forward, his long gray-green eyes glittering with interest.

"I wonder if it's the verse sound," thought Miss Willis. She drifted into a discussion of the poem with the class, and Albert's interest did not abate. He alone knew why the crocodile was knotty and what it meant to blink. From that time he roused. He was but mildly interested in the routine work, but when the hour for stories and poetry came, he was alert. He drank in new words and phrases eagerly, and when the class shut eyes to imagine the lap, lap, of the Nile waters, or the songs of the vineyard workers in southern France, his were the last to open. The faint color stole over his face more often, the glimmering smile was oftener present about his lips. He began to bring mysterious bundles to school, but no one ever saw him open them or what he did with them. He knew where and when all the trains went, and what the freight cars carried.

"I sean a bum hop a car," Miss Willis read one day on his language paper. Miss Willis laughed inaudibly. She

had too many other blue-dotted and pink-striped calicoed personalities to worry over, to pay much attention to Albert. Besides, he was catching on.

One evening she was loitering home from school, waiting for one of the grammar teachers who had been way-laid by a sudsy, angry parent. She paused mechanically at the tracks to let a groaning freight train go by. As it passed, she saw a boy with a bundle tied up in a dirty tea towel scramble up the steps. He turned his face. It was Albert Golembreskie!

"Good-bye, teacher!" he yelled joyously, and waved his hand.

Miss Willis watched, stupefied, until the train rounded the curve. The grammar teacher came up behind her and touched her on the shoulder. "What have you seen? You look so queer," she said.

Miss Willis looked at her a moment. Then she laughed. "I—I sean a bum hop a car," she said, and laughed again, but this time there was a touch of wonder and of longing, and perhaps of sadness in the tone of it.

### LEGENDS OF THE RHINE.

ALEXANDER DUMAS (PERE). TRANSLATED BY MRS. GEO. P. BROWN.

#### *The Drachenfels.*

A pilgrimage to Rolandseck, the ruins of Roland, is a necessity for the tender souls who inhabit not only the two banks of the Rhine, but for those who live fifty leagues or more in the interior of the country. Tradition says that it was here that Roland, as he was on his way up the Rhine in the service of his uncle, who was about to join the war against the Saracens in Spain, was

received by the old Count Raymond. The Count learning the name of the illustrious pilgrim that he had the honor to entertain, wished him to be served at table by his daughter, the beautiful Hildagonde. Roland cared little by whom he should be served provided the dinner be plentiful and the wine be good. He held up his glass when the door was opened and a beautiful

young girl entered with a goblet in her hand and advanced toward the knight. She had scarce reached the middle of the room when the glance of Hildegonde and of Roland met and, strange to relate, both began to tremble so violently that half the wine was spilled upon the flagstone, as much by the fault of the guest as by that of the cup-bearer.

Roland was to leave the next day, but the old Count Raymond insisted that he pass eight days at the chateau. Roland felt that his duty was at Ingleheim, but Hildegonde raised those beautiful eyes to him and he remained.

When the end of the eight days had come, the two lovers had not spoken of love; and yet on that evening Roland took the hand of Hildegonde and led her to the chapel. Arrived before the altar they both knelt. Roland said: "I shall never take for wife other than Hildegonde." Hildegonde added: "Heavenly Father receive the oath that I make to give myself to you if I am not for Roland."

Roland departed. A year passed. Roland performed wondrous deeds of valor, and the rumors of his prowess resounded from the Pyrenees to the banks of the Rhine. Then suddenly there came vague rumors of a crushing defeat and the name of Roncesvalles was heard.

One night a cavalier came to ask for hospitality at the chateau of Count Raymond; he came from Spain where he had followed the emperor. Hildegonde ventured to speak of Roland and then the chevalier recounted how in the pass of Roncesvalles, surrounded by Saracens, and seeing himself alone against a hundred, he had blown his *horn to call the emperor to his aid, and with such force that although he was*

more than a league and a half from the emperor had determined to retreat, but Ganelon prevented him, and the sound of the horn had died away it was the last effort of the hero. In order that his good sword Durandal should not fall into the hands of infidels, he attempted to break it with the rocks, but accustomed to split the rocks, but accustomed to split Durandel split the granite and Roland was obliged to thrust the blade in a fissure and bear his whole weight on it in order to break it. Then covered with wounds he had fallen by the side of the fragments of his good sword murmuring the name of a woman he called Hildegonde.

The daughter of Count Raymond did not shed a tear or utter a cry; she rose, pale as death, and approaching the count: "My father," she said, "you know what Roland promised and what on my side I promised. Tomorrow with your permission I shall enter the convent of Nonnwerth."

The father looked at his daughter shaking his head in sadness and thought: "Is Roland all in all to me and am I nothing?" Then remembering that he was a Christian before a father, he responded: "The will of God be done in all things!" And the next day Hildegonde entered the convent. Then, as she was anxious to take the veil, because it seemed to her that the farther she was separated from the world the nearer she would be to Ronald, she obtained from the diocesan bishop who was her uncle the privilege of having the time of her tests reduced to three months, and at the end of that time she pronounced her vows.

Scarce eight days had passed when the knight requested the hospitality a

chateau of Count Raymond. The count went down to meet him. The knight stopped and looked at him with astonishment. In the three months that he had been separated from his daughter, the count had grown ten years older. The knight raised the visor of his helmet and said: "My father, I have kept my word. Has Hildegonde done the same by me?"

The old man gave a sorrowful cry. The wounds that Roland had received were deep but they were not mortal. After a long convalescence, he had hastened to rejoin his betrothed.

The old man leaned upon the shoulder of Roland, then regaining his strength he conducted him without speaking to the chapel and there he made him the sign to kneel and kneeling beside him, said, "Let us pray!"

"She is dead?" murmured Roland. "She is dead for you and for the world! Did she not promise to give herself only to you or to God? She has kept her word."

The next morning Roland set out on foot, leaving his horse and his arms at the chateau of the old count. He climbed the mountain and towards evening he arrived at the summit of one of the peaks which overlooked the river. He saw far below at the extremity of a verdant isle the convent of Nonnenwerth. At that moment the nuns were singing their evening prayer and in the midst of all these saintly voices which mounted to the sky there was but one voice which went straight to his heart.

Roland passed the night stretched out upon the rock; the next morning at the break of day the nuns chanted their morning prayers, and he heard again that voice which caused every

fiber of his soul to vibrate. Then he resolved to build a hermitage on the summit of this mountain where he might be near the one he loved.

At eleven o'clock each day the nuns walked out of the convent and wandered at will over the island. But one of them separated from her companions and seated herself under a willow by the edge of the water. She was veiled and wore the same costume as the others, but Roland did not doubt that she was Hildegonde.

For two years, evening and morning, Roland heard among the voices of these nuns the voice which was so dear to him; for two years each day at the same hour the same solitary nun came and seated herself at the same place although each day she seemed to walk more slowly.

Then came an evening when her voice was silent. The next morning it was still not there. Eleven o'clock came and Roland looked for her in vain. The nuns came to the garden as usual, but none of them came to the willow by the side of the water. About four o'clock four of the nuns came and dug a grave at the foot of the willow. When this was done Roland heard anew the chants in which the sweetest and most beautiful voice would be silent forever, and the entire community came out escorting the casket which held all that remained of a virgin crowned with flowers, and her pale face was uncovered. This was the only time for two years that the veil of Hildegonde had been raised.

Three days later, a shepherd who had lost his goat climbed to the summit of the mountain and found Roland seated with his back resting against the wall of his hermitage, and his head bowed upon his breast. He was dead.

## COMMENT.

### SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

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GEO. P. BROWN, Editor

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THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL PUBLISHING CO.

BLOOMINGTON, ILLINOIS.

#### STEPHEN A. LANGDON.

Stephen H. Langdon, formerly of Ida, Mich., a student who for seven years has attracted attention in educational circles by his rapid progress as a specialist in languages, was recently elected to the chair of archaeology at Oxford, England. There are but three such positions as remunerative in the world, and he, the youngest of the three men who occupy them, will draw a salary of about \$10,000 annually. Two lectures a week cover the duties imposed on him at the famous seat of learning, and the leisure time which will consequently be his, Mr. Langdon purposes to devote to writing a history of his life and the writing of five books on various oriental subjects. The scholar is at present passing the summer days at his chalet in Switzerland, and there in a study overlooking Mt. Blanc, enjoys a well earned respite

and the satisfaction of having won for himself, the highest tribute which his line of work has to bestow. He is just 34 years old; a small man, scarcely 5 feet 4, with a frank, boyish expression and remarkably fine dark eyes. He was born on his father's farm, four miles from Ida, and while being educated at the Monroe Public Schools, often walked to his home, a distance of more than ten miles. In vacation, he worked in the fields with as much vim as at his books the remainder of the time, and being fairly made of ambition, showed unceasing activity or energy, no matter with what he was occupied. Always at the head of his class, he remarked to a schoolmate that he had never gone to a recitation in his life, when he did not feel sure that he could say every word of his lesson. Another characteristic differentiating him from the usual school boy, was the gift for debate, for at an early age, this lad would pace the platform, while his glib tongue never faltered for expression and he faced the audience with that confidence born of ability. In 1892 came the graduation at the Monroe High School, followed by four years at the University of Michigan and a Post Graduate course at the latter; these periods of study being accompanied by tutoring and alternated with teaching a district school. Summer school at Monroe, under his direction took up all but one week of vacation, and the steady application at last threatened to undermine his health. But he did not lay off. He was now at the top of the tree, as far as Michigan was concerned, and the labor was requited with the scholarship to Columbia. Here he hesitated with regard to his career. On one hand, lay the broad road of practical, all around life, for which his education had well prepared him, and on the other, the technical toe path, with a charming vista at the far end for the successful. At this juncture, Mr. Langdon got into politics, and was elected Commissioner of Schools in Monroe County. Nevertheless, before the expiration of the term, he accepted the scholarship in New York, and took to the highway of learning, whence his ambition had really always been goading him. Two o'clock in the morning, had often found the student at his books, but now he worked harder than ever and took engagements to lecture, for the purpose of defraying expenses in the metropolises. Ten dollars a Sunday was the fee received for a talk to an Epworth League and \$20 a month for addressing a Sunday School class. A season at Rhode Island Beach was also among the remuneration that now came his way, when as tutor, he became a member of a wealthy household accustomed to spend a part of the year at that resort. The course at Columbia happily terminated with the presentation of the Foreign Scholarship, after which most of his American friends lost sight of the scholar, who for four years buried himself at the educational centres of the old world. But it was

not all digging and grinding, in fact the hard part of the work, as far as text-books went, was done, and when at the University of Paris, Mr. Langdon found time to compile a book of his lectures on Babylonia and Palestine; a volume now having a wide circulation through Italy, France, Germany, England, and the United States. Two subsequent years at the University of Leipzig, complete these annals of study and the excellency of his scholarship there was what placed him on the pinnacle from which it is useless for his ambition to reach. Now, more generally known as a speaker on antiquities, than as a professor of languages, the subject of this sketch, will before succeeding to the new position, deliver lectures at the great colleges of America; at Michigan, Chicago, Harvard, Yale, and Columbia. His parents, Mr. and Mrs. George Langdon have heard from him continuously during his long absence, and his care for them in every way adds the characteristic without which, in spite of all, his life might look like a rubbish heap of work and vain ambition.

It is an extraordinary story; beginning with the regulation write up of the successful man. Nothing left out; not even the district school and the ten mile walk and concluding with the fascination of old world scenery. That a boy from one of our farms, should by his own efforts be living in a Swiss chateau, sounds like a romance. But that is beginning again where we started and savors of Twice Told Tales.

K. N. NIMS.

#### SHALL ILLINOIS HAVE A STATE TREE?

##### To Superintendents of Public Schools:

On the suggestion of Mrs. James C. Fesler, of Rochelle, Ill., the pupils of the Rochelle public Schools, with the co-operation of their Superintendent, ask the other schools of Illinois to join them in a voting contest, to decide what shall be our State Tree, the result of this vote to be communicated to the State Legislature, with the request that a bill be passed, declaring the tree so chosen to be the Illinois State Tree. Superintendents of Schools are asked to have their schools study trees, to the end that an intelligent vote may be cast, and to send the result of this vote to MRS. JAMES C. FESLER, Rochelle, Illinois, by December 1, 1907, so that, if possible, the result may be given in the Arbor Day Program to be sent out next April by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Our aim is the promotion of the study of the trees of Illinois, the benefits to be derived from which are so obvious that they need not be enumerated.

Very respectfully,

C. G. JOINER, Superintendent.

MRS. J. C. FESLER, Rec.-Sec'y.

#### ILLINOIS SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB.

This club will meet at Peoria, Friday evening, October 11, and Saturday morning, October 12.

The evening meeting will be at the Creve Cœur Club (probably), for dinner at 7 p. m.

The address after dinner will be given by Prof. H. E. Griffith, of Knox College. The Saturday morning address is to be on the topic, "Socializing the Materials and Methods of Education," given by Prof. John A. Keith, of Normal, Ill. Discussion will be open to all after each address.

The dinner will cost \$1 and all school masters whether members yet or not are invited to come. Write the Secretary, E. L. Boyer, Bloomington, Illinois, to reserve a place at table for you: J. Stanley Brown of the Joliet Township High School, is the president.

#### WESTERN WISCONSIN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

This Association will meet October 11 and 12 at LaCrosse. The three general sessions will be addressed by the State Superintendent, C. P. Carey, on the Influence of Ideals; by Dr. Edward Evans of LaCrosse, on Infectious Diseases and the School Child; by Dr. L. D. Harvey of Menomonie, on The Utility of Hand Training as an Educational Process; and by President V. E. McCaskill, of the Superior Normal School, on The Teacher's Atmosphere.

The evening address will be by Bishop J. W. Hamilton, of San Francisco, on Some Persons of Quality at Boston.

Supt. John P. Bird, of LaCrosse, is president, and W. E. Greene, of Manston, is secretary.

#### THE NEW LIBRARIAN OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

On the 9th day of January, 1907, Colonel Isaac Edwards Clarke, who, since 1871, had been connected with the Bureau of Education, and, since 1882, had held the title of Collector and Compiler of Statistics, died at the age of 76 years. Colonel Clarke was widely known for his compilation of the literature on instruction in art and manual training which appeared in four large volumes, 1885 to 1898, issued by the Bureau of Education under the title *Art and Industry*, and also for his monograph entitled, *Art and Industrial Education*, contributed to the series prepared under the editorship of President Nicholas Murray Butler for the Paris Exposition.

Mr. W. Dawson Johnston, of Rhode Island, has been appointed collector and compiler of statistics to succeed Colonel Clarke and is assigned to duty as librarian of the Bureau of Education at a salary of \$2,400 per annum.

Mr. Johnston is a graduate of Brown University in the class of 1893. He was a graduate student in sociology in the University of Chicago, 1893-4, and in history in Harvard University, 1897-8. He received the degree of A.M. from Harvard University in 1898.

During the years 1894-7 he was instructor in history in the University of Michigan and, subsequent to study at Harvard University, an instructor in history at Brown University. In the year 1900 he was appointed first assistant in the Division of Bibliography in the library of Congress. He remained an assistant in that library until his appointment to his present po-

sition. He is secretary of the Bibliographical society, and editor of its Bulletin. He is also author of the *History of the Library of Congress*, and a contributor to library and other journals.

In his new position, Mr. Johnston will have charge, under the supervision of the Commissioner of Education, of the library of the Bureau and of its reorganization with a view first, to rendering it more useful in the preparation of the Reports and other publications of the Bureau; secondly, to facilitating the investigation of educational problems by advanced students, teachers, educational administrators, public commissions, and legislative committees; thirdly, to doing what can be done from this center in the way of promoting the efficiency of school libraries and co-operation between public schools and public libraries generally.

#### N.E.A. INVESTIGATIONS.

At the Los Angeles meeting the N.E.A. Board of Directors authorized the appointment of seven committees of investigation, and made an appropriation of \$500 for the expense of each committee.

The following are the subjects assigned to each:

Committee on the Culture Element in Education.

Committee on a System of Teaching Morals in Public Schools.

Committee on Industrial Education in Rural Schools.

Committee on Shortage of Teachers.

Committee on Provisions in Public Schools for Exceptional Children.

Committee on a National University.

Committee on Courses in Manual Training for Elementary Schools.

#### ILLINOIS CONGRESS OF MOTHERS.

The eighth annual meeting will be held at Champaign, Illinois, on October 2, 3, 4.

Wednesday evening after greetings and responses a reception will be given by the University of Illinois in the parlors of the Womarr's Building.

Thursday morning and afternoon sessions will be devoted to reports of officers and committees, with an address by Mrs. Jennie Barlow on Some Essentials of Health, Long Life and Comfort.

L. C. Lord, president of the Charleston Normal, will give an address at the evening meeting.

Friday morning a conference on the work of the clubs will occur, and an address by Miss Grace Jones—In the Heart of a Book.

#### DORMITORY AT EASTERN ILLINOIS NORMAL SCHOOL.

The dormitory to be erected at the Eastern Illinois Normal School is the first of the kind among normal schools in our state and its success will lead to a demand for dormitories at the other normal schools. It is difficult to find suitable rooming places for female students. President Lord, who was instrumental in getting the appropriation, has had experi-

ence in Minnesota, where he was in charge of a state normal school having a dormitory at Charleston, including the gymnasium. The building will cost \$100,000 and will accommodate from seventy-five to one hundred young men.

#### PURPOSE OF NATURE STUDY

It is the purpose of nature-study to develop the child's native interest in himself and his surroundings. It proceeds on the theory that the best educational procedure with the child is first to direct the personal sentiments, interests, and adaptabilities. Of course we consider not only what the child's interests and powers are, but also how we can aid him to grow into a man; but we cannot annihilate the native adaptabilities without endangering the child. It may be even dangerous to suppress them.

Nature study, therefore, is to begin with the general, common, normal, and undissected objects and phenomena, rather than with definition and classification, in order that the child may be developed naturally. Definitions and classifications are the results of the accumulation of experience. They are not primary educational means or methods. Definition lags behind knowledge. It is likely to take the place of knowledge in the child's mind.

In the old botany and grammar and physics, as soon as we begin to compress knowledge and experience into the limits of definitions, we take away the life, spontaneity, and enjoyment of it. Definitions are for mental guidance after experience has accumulated, and become more exact with the maturity of the person. No doubt we have over-defined subject matter in our text-books.

Nature-study is coming more and more to be an out-of-door subject, for the child's interest should center more in the natural world indigenous than in the formal and traditional. It is not our sphere to live chiefly in books. Nature-study began very largely with object lesson work; but it did not develop into nature-study until a distinct effort was made to study the objects and the phenomena where they occur in their normal relationships. There can be no effective nature-study when the work is confined to the building.

The keynote of nature-study is to develop sympathy with one's environment and a deeper understanding of it. The long continued habit of looking at the natural world with the eye of self-interest—to determine whether plants and animals are "beneficial" or "injurious" to man—has developed a selfish attitude toward nature, and one that is untrue and unenjoyable. The average man today contemplates nature only as it relates to his own gain or personal enjoyment.

The end of nature-study is to develop intellectual sensitiveness and insight; therefore must not cease with mere objects and phenomena. This attitude accepts phenomena as real, and regards what we call "progress" as really such. It accepts the world as it is. It does not depreciate the need and importance of introspection, but regards introspection

meditation as exercise for a mature and maturing mind, and holds that such exercise is most effective when most closely related to experience. Nature-study is not merely objective if it is developed in the way in which it should be developed.—From L. H. Bailey's "The Common Schools and the Farm-youth" in the *October Century*.

#### CORRECTIONS OF BAD PROOFREADING.

We ask our readers to make the following corrections in the article by Dr. John W. Cook, on Superintendent Gastman, published in our September issue. The mistakes are due to the printer, for which we are responsible:

On page 8: read "Warren Coman," not Marvin.

On page 9: read, "He had none of the arts of the 'manager,'" not "wits."

On page 10: read, "A closer analysis," not "A close analysis."

On page 11: read, "the Divine immanence," not "the Divine reverence;" and read, "and so instinctively," not "instructively."

On page 12: read, "holds her Empire in the heart," not "hearts."

On page 11: the words "Boards of Education" should begin with capital letters.

## BOOK TABLE

**NEW ELEMENTARY ARITHMETIC.** By George Wentworth, author of Text-Books in Mathematics, 232 pages, cloth. Ginn & Co., Boston, New York, Chicago, London.

This is a new text-book intended for use in the last half of the second year of school and in the third and fourth grades. Each of the five chapters constitutes a half year's work.

In the beginning work, the first half of the chapter is devoted to presenting the idea of numbers as made known exactly by counting, and the use of numbers in combining or comparing groups or for separating a certain group of individuals from a larger group. Following the oral exercises by which these ideas are developed, exercises for rapid addition and subtraction are given in varied and interesting forms.

After thus making definite the conception of number and giving some skill in combinations up to 100, the use of abstract number is presented by examples in measurement and in the division of objects into simple fractions. This is followed by the more abstract work of counting by equal groups and of separating into equal groups.

The second chapter, planned for use in the first half of the third grade, begins with the reading and writing of numbers, and arranges exercises in addition and subtraction in such a way as to develop the rules.

Measurement takes up the combination of the different divisions of time, and the distinction between area and perimeter measurements. In fractions combinations of a few of the simple fractional parts are given and the chapter ends with the development of rules

for multiplication and simple division.

These processes are developed further in chapter three. In the fourth chapter long division is presented and rules for combining fractions are developed by exercises in comparing fractions of different denominations. Denominate numbers are introduced in the exercises on measurement. In the last half of the fourth year work decimal fractions are introduced and application of arithmetic made to bills and receipts.

This book leaves the teacher entirely free to develop from the pupils the statement of rules as they come to appreciate the value of a rule for their work. No formal statement of any rule is given, but the arrangement of exercises and problems is such as to lead the pupils under the teacher's guidance to their own formulation as this is needed. The purpose of the exercises and problems and of the arrangement of them is to give the pupil power to utilize facts in developing "his power to see, to imagine, and to form proper judgments."

**THE BIBLE AS GOOD READING.** By Albert J. Beveridge, 12mo, cloth, 94 pages, 50 cents; Ooze calf, \$1. Henry Altemus Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

Senator Beveridge read the Bible as a lad again and again because he had nothing else to read and had a tremendous natural appetite for reading. Comparing it with other books later in life, he saw that it was the best of all when considered as interesting reading only.

In the introductory chapter he relates an experience of reading some of its literature to guides and friends on a canoe trip into the wilderness. They "never knew those things were in the Bible." Senator Beveridge asks this pertinent question, which the readers of this journal will find is the same as Miss Lampe is putting to teachers in her articles on Bible reading for the schools, "Is not the neglect of the Bible as mere literature due to the intellectual indigestion acquired early in youth as to this particular book by the unintelligent way in which it is read at the fireside and from the pulpit?"

In this book, David is given as one of the wide-awake short stories, this is followed by others of love, courtship, and intrigue. From the New Testament the man Paul is portrayed in his enthusiasm and on his perilous journeys, and in another chapter as an orator and missionary. The longest chapter is given to Moses.

Teachers should have this book, it is full of suggestion.

**POPULAR FOLK GAMES AND DANCES FOR PLAYGROUND, VACATION, SCHOOL AND SCHOOLROOM USE.** Arranged by Mari Ruef Hofer, author of Singing Games, old and new, size 9x12 in., 56 pages, paper cover. A. Flanagan Co., Chicago.

This is a very valuable contribution of needed material for enriching the play and social activities of the children in our crowded cities. It is a real contribution also to the



study of social conditions. In the selection, adaptation and proving of details, Miss Hofer has done scholarly work.

The contents is arranged in the following groups—1. Social Exchange, as Games of Visiting, Greeting, and Play. 2. Simple Activities, and Gymnastic Movements. 3. Imitative and Dramatic Games. 4. Bridge and Knight and Castle Games. 5. Games of the May and other Seasons. 6. Song Dances and Simple National Dances. Many of these are adapted to older children on the playground and in Vacation Schools.

If a purer enjoyment of rhythmic play and custom of co-operation in wholesome and active amusements can be given the children, especially in the cities, the school will do more for their social life and thus work for the enrichment of the lives of the people.

A NEW SERIES OF THE NATURAL GEOGRAPHIES. By Jacques W. Redway and Russell Hinman. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

Introductory Geography. Cloth,  $8\frac{1}{4} \times 10\frac{1}{4}$  inches, 146 pages, with maps and illustrations. Price, 60 cents.

The same in two parts. Price, each, 40 cents.

School Geography. Cloth,  $10 \times 12\frac{1}{2}$  inches, 186 pages, with maps and illustrations. Price, \$1.25.

The same in two parts. Price, each, 75 cents.

In this attractive new series of geographies, the central thought is Man, and the Earth is studied as his dwelling place. Emphasis is laid on industrial, commercial, and political geography, with just enough physiography to bring out the causal relations.

The text is clear, simple, interesting, and explicit. The pictures are distinguished for their aptness and perfect illustrative character. Two sets of maps are provided, one for reference, and the other for study, the latter having corresponding maps drawn to the same scale.

The Introductory Geography develops the subject in accordance with the child's comprehension, and recognizes the value of composition work, map drawing and sand modeling. In the treatment of the United States, the physiographic, historical, political, industrial, and commercial conditions are taken up in their respective order, the chief industries and the localities devoted largely to each receiving more than usual consideration. The country is considered as being divided into five industrial sections.

In the School Geography, a special feature is the representation of the basal principles of physical and general geography in *simple, untechnical* language, arranged in

numbered paragraphs. In subsequent pages, constant reference is made to these principles, but in each case accompanied by the paragraph number. This greatly simplifies the work, and makes it possible to take up the formal study of these introductory lessons after the remainder of the work has been completed. With a view to enriching the course, numerous specific references are given to well selected geographical reading.

For the convenience of teachers, the series is published in four books, as well as in two books.

MATHEMATICAL GEOGRAPHY. By Willis E. Johnson, vice-president and professor of geography and social sciences, Northern Normal and Industrial School, Aberdeen, South Dakota. 8mo. cloth, 336 pages. Price \$1. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, Chicago.

This is a pioneer in a field very difficult of adaptation for study by young minds untrained in careful and sustained thinking.

The book is not mathematical in the sense of giving rigid mathematical demonstrations, for in most cases such a treatise would require a knowledge of that science which the teachers and students for whom this book is written do not have. It is only descriptive of those facts of our knowledge of geography and of the planets which can be demonstrated by mathematics.

This book is valuable for the amount and variety of the information given, and for its general clearness of description and illustration. In some places the limitations of such a treatment of the subject are apt to leave the reader with uncertain knowledge if not with a misunderstanding of the deductions to be drawn from abstruse mathematical calculations. The description of the planetesimal hypothesis must be very indefinitely understood by one not acquainted with the mathematics of spiral motion.

Teachers will find many of the conundrums of mathematical geography described in a way to show what the basis for answering them is, and how definitely mathematics gives the result under any particular hypothesis.

HOLDER'S HALF HOUR WITH MAMMALS. By Charles Frederick Holder, author of *Elements of Zoology*, etc. Cloth, 12mo., 253 pages, with illustrations. Price, 60 cents. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, Chicago.

In this, the latest addition to the series of *Eclectic Readings*, the story of the mammals has been presented in simple and untechnical language, and in a most interesting manner. Dr. Holder is well known as a writer, and in this volume he gives the student a good general idea of the structure of the mammalia, the principal species, their geographical distribution, and their relative economic importance. Many notes and incidents from personal experience are introduced. The book is supplied with numerous attractive illustrations.

# SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

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## EDUCATIONAL SURVEY.

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### **The Point of Contact.**

Is there a point of contact between the learner and the matter to be learned which remains the same from the beginning to the end of life? If there is, then there is nothing of greater value to the teacher than to know where it is, and how to bring matter and child together at that point.

The young child is at the beginning of its consciousness two activities so intimately united that they are practically one: These are *will* and *desire*. In fact the psychologist is beginning to say that all the acts of the child are those of will, and the only difference among them is in the kinds of will. So we speak of the will as desire; the will as creative; the will as thought; the will as choice, etc. The will as desire is the first conscious act of the child. In other words the child when he arrives at consciousness is "will as desire"—desire to obtain and retain, or desire to avoid. These are called positive and negative because they act upon the matter of knowledge in opposite ways.

Now the aim of the teacher is to bring this matter of knowledge—the environment—to the consciousness of the child so that he shall desire to attain and retain what is positive—what advances his growth—and to avoid what arrests it.

"Will as desire" is then the point of contact between the thing to be done and the doing of it.

The teacher needs to bear in mind that "will as desire" is practically identical with interest in the young child. Interest is the subjective, and will as desire is the objective phase of what is substantially one and the same psychic experience. It is the native impulse of the young child and remains the impelling force throughout life. In the infant the objective utterance stimulates the interest, and a little later the interest stimulates the external act. It is especially true of children in the kindergarten and primary grades that doing begets interest quite as much as interest prompts doing. Both the doing and the interest must unite in the experience to make the act educative.

It is the commanding impulse of will to give itself utterance; to make itself objective to itself. In early infancy it does this unconsciously and for no definite end. At the dawn of consciousness, desire emerges which directs the movement to the end it sets up.

What has been described is a will-dynamo which creates its own utterances, and it is the reaction of these creations upon the primal source from which they spring—the subjective self—which constitutes education and re-

sults in character. Education is the stimulating through environment of utterances, and the guiding of their reactions. The kind of character resulting depends upon the nature of the stimulation which the environment gives. While this primitive will is divine rather than demonic — positive rather than negative—and this is the teacher's anchor of hope—yet the child brings up with him from the lower world from which he has emerged, the appetites and passions of the brute. These are his commanding impulses at birth, which must be trained for the service of the higher self. They are not to be eradicated but educated to act in obedience to the higher authority of the conscience.

What man has inherited from the lower world is as truly divine as is the personality which distinguishes him from the rest of creation. It is the function of education to lead this personality into control of the agencies with which it finds itself supplied. His birth-right is freedom, free-will; but what is inherited must be earned anew by him who would truly possess it.

The personality brings up from below the impelling force which manifests itself in the feelings and intelligence of the lower world but nothing of that which we call knowledge. The knowledge of the animal is his experiences crystallized into habits which become active in the young whenever the conditions — the environment — demand their activity. There is a prophesy of knowledge in the various cries of animals by which they manifest rudimentary intellect; but knowledge as the school understands it is impossible without words. Personality, the

new endowment that changes animal to man, immediately sets to work to make a language. The personality, the ego, can realize itself, can come to its own only through language, through abstract symbols of its ideas.

The chimpanzee has a brain that cannot be distinguished in its structure and form from the brain of a person. So far as the most minute examination of the cells of the brain can determine, the chimpanzee has all the machinery for the making and storing of words that is found in the human brain. The only apparent reason to the neurologist why man has speech and the chimpanzee has none, is that man is a personality, a conscious ego, and the chimpanzee is not. The child does not inherit language. He must create it, and must educate his brain to retain it. There is a small section of the brain no larger than a hazel-nut which contains the entire library of words that the most learned person can utter. Let that hazel-nut have a leaking blood vessel which discharges a drop of blood sufficient to paralyze the cells of this small section of the brain, and the victim's power to utter words vanishes on the instant.

Without the power to make and retain words, man's intelligence would be little more than that of the chimpanzee or gorilla. There is, of course, a limited intelligence arising from observing and remembering the relations in our sense percepts. All the higher order of animals have this. But thought must use abstract notions, and abstract notions without words to symbolize them could never be arranged in that systematic form we call thought.

So we come to understand the statement of our modern neurologists that the ego—the personality, “makes his own mind” through his power to make and store up words in the brain. In other words, man’s intelligence depends upon language for its development, and language is not inherited but is constructed anew by each individual.

When the significance of this fact is fully realized, we see why it is that the schools devote so much time to the formation of a language sense in the children.

And because growth in knowledge is so necessary to growth in power, those who were not psychologist began long ago to declare that “knowledge is power,” and even—what Socrates declared—that “knowledge is virtue.” Power is will working to realize desired ends. Knowledge is the guide that directs the power. The intelligence, which is but another aspect of the primal will—often called self-activity—when it attains to the power of thought often becomes the commanding factor in determining what is the end most desirable. Desire becomes merged in intelligence and then we understand what Socrates meant when he identified knowledge with virtue. In the higher development of the soul, feeling, will, and thought become one in the lives of men.

This higher development of the ego starts in infancy in “will as desire.” It advances through a conflict of desires and ends under the guidance of the school, and other environments. The function of the school is to keep uncovered the *highest desires and ends* the pupil can comprehend, trusting

that the higher nature of the child will come into leadership. Knowledge is the chief direct pursuit of school because through it the ego develops an intelligence in determining the relative values of competing ends, and the way that leads most directly to the end desired.

The point of contact at every step of the process in uniting the doer to the thing to be done is the will, the ego, as desire or feeling. Only in so far as the will as desire is active in the doing, can we hope for interest in the doing and an increment of power as the result of the doing.

When the teacher sees that the power acquired in the school may be power for evil (when the evil is the thing desired) his conscience will not let him sleep if he has not used his utmost endeavor to substitute for the lower desires of the animal nature, such as selfishness, greed, and domination, the desire that makes for righteousness.

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**The Educative Institution.**

Education in this country is growing toward an institution.

It has but recently emerged from sub-consciousness into an infant institutional life, and is struggling toward self-consciousness as a system of doctrine and law, after the manner in which the state and the church have evolved in human history. We say that the state has arrived at self-consciousness when it deliberately works for its own betterment as a promoter of the freedom of the individual. As an example to illustrate what is meant by a self-conscious state, one may note the recent effort in Oklahoma

of the institutional self-consciousness to give itself objective form in a constitution. The experience of the institutional consciousness of the people, during the past generation, in combatting organized wealth which threatens to reduce to slavery the individual, has impelled the common will, "the folk-soul," of one group of American citizens, in this western territory, to protect itself from this imminent danger by the formation of a peculiar fundamental law, which is a near approach to pure democracy. This particular group regards representative government—a republic—as a failure and has organized a state institution that is in spirit hostile to such government. It has preserved only so much of the *form* of a republic as will insure its admission as a state into the sisterhood of states that accept the national constitution as their fundamental law. The institutional spirit of that state is a reversion to the pure democracy of the ancient Athenians, having a quasi-republican form which is not in harmony with its spirit.

The Educative Institution has but recently been born. It is yet in its swaddling clothes. The public's estimate of a school is that it is an adjunct of the family, primarily, and its estimate of the school-master is that he is an employee of the state to train the young for citizenship. If the family performed its full function, there would remain little for the state to do to insure its own survival.

So limited a conception of the function of education does not make it an institution in any but a subordinate sense. It is regarded as an *organization auxiliary* to the secular and the

religious institutions—not of equal rank with them, and civilization is thought to have reached its complete *organization* in the secular and religious institutions, and will have attained its perfection when their functions are adequately performed.

To the more thoughtful and discriminating student of the evolution of social life, this appears to be an insufficient view of the matter. Nothing appears adequate to complete evolution that does not raise education to equal rank with the secular and religious institutions, the three together forming the organization of the social life that is to be.

This social life is the ultimate and complete Institution whose moving spirit and inspiration is the spirit of the age; the world spirit—that which in religion is called the Holy Spirit.

This definition of social life, as the all-embracing institution of the human race, calls for some statement of the specific function of each of these three foundation institutions (which we call the secular, the religious, and the educative) which shall justify us in declaring them to be the foundation, or to change the figure, the source of life of that social whole when it shall come to recognize the Holy Spirit as its inspiration and leader. They are not only the source of life, but their history will show the process of the evolution of this life.

An institution is Will made actual and objective in an organization of thought and method leading toward a certain well-defined purpose or end. It has been called *actualized* will to distinguish it from *realized* will. The Panama Canal will be the realized will

of the American people. It is a dead result. The National Government is the actualized will of the American people. It is a live thing moving on toward a definite end. All the creations of the Absolute Will are actualized will throughout the world of nature and the world of man. When man creates an ideal and uses the material of nature to give external expression to it, this is realized will. When he creates an ideal and uses material of his own creation for giving it objective validity, he makes an institution, which is a self-active living and growing thing—the state, for example. The man who believes that a government or a religion may be created, out of hand, and is subject to no growth, does not hold this view. He thinks an evolving religion or an evolving government is a dangerous conception that inevitably leads to anarchy. He must have a “Thus saith the Lord” or “Thus saith the constitution” to support every proposed attempt to meet new conditions.

Human institutions have grown very slowly because of the powerful influence of this conservatism; but it is also true that institutions have been saved from many perils and disasters because of this conservatism. Here we discover the reason for the division of the members of every institution into two nearly equal parties and of a very small group called the “Balance of Power,” which Matthew Arnold called the saving remnant.

*(To be continued.)*

#### Scholars in Finance.

One of the most promising features of the time is the presence of scholars in the conferences of the captains of finance. In one of the most important of these, recently held in Chicago, the president of Columbia University was the presiding officer and a professor of Cornell was a speaker to whom the conference listened gladly. Men of native ability who are scholars and are trained in thinking in the field in which a social storm is raging, are the wisest and safest counsellors in quelling the storm. They are men of power for the reason that they are men of high purpose and of a wide range of knowledge to guide in its realization. Such men are, even without practical experience, better financiers, better captains of industry, better farmers, better in any pursuit than are those who have followed the modern cry of education, “learn to do by doing.” But their scholarship must be broad and deep, and their power must be a disciplined will which pursues ends that are moral by methods that are righteous.

The school-master finds much in the present condition of the country to re-enforce his conviction that something more than knowledge must be pursued in the schools if competent leaders and directors of our nation's progress are to come from them.

Many school-masters continue to affirm that the commanding purpose of the elementary school is scholarship; which in practice is resulting, for the most part, in spots of information on the pupils' minds in each of a wide range of subjects. Such a con-

viction and practice will not give to this country wise leaders nor intelligent followers. The followers need an intelligence not a whit inferior to that of the leaders; hence the free-school for the education of all citizens.

**Supt. Gregory's Article on Spelling.** Superintendent Gregory has broken some new ground in his study of the spelling problem. His contribution in this number will be read with interest by those who are earnestly seeking for light in this dark corner of our school practice. He is not seeking to reform our spelling, but to teach it as it is. The English has had a numerous parentage and has inherited as varied an orthography. The original spellings in the different languages had a significance in the speech of the people who used them, but in their amalgamation into the English some of that significance has died out. Such words are mainly of Teutonic origin, and were and are of prevalent use among the early and the modern English people. While the significance of the letters has died out of the pronunciation, the spelling has remained. Changes in pronunciation other than those referred to have made our spelling of other words archaic. The last syllable in *passed*, for example, had a significance so long as it was pronounced.

The English language is the richest in the world because of this amalgamation. The spelling of it is not easy to learn, but no one has yet made it clear how it can be simplified to any appreciable extent without doing more harm than good. Superintendent Gregory evidently believes that our

present spelling will remain with for generations to come, and the nearest orthographical duty of teacher is to learn how to teach spelling of words now in use most effectively, and with the least waste of time and effort. There is much paper that teachers will find suggestive. It is an application of psychology not heretofore made with so clearness and discrimination.

**Is Rochester Emancipated?** Rochester, N. Y. seems for the being, to be emancipated from poverty and greed and graft in the administration of her school system. We say *for the time* for the reason that partisan politics is not yet eliminated from the election of members of the board of Rochester. It happens, this year, both the Republican and Democratic parties have nominated the same persons for the vacancies in the board. Rochester was in hard lines for a while before she abandoned the elective board members by wards. Since then citizens selected from the best have been voted for by the whole city. A board of such citizens has succeeded in making the schools efficient to a degree that neither political party thinks it wise to interfere so long as the people are awake.

The present is an era of political house-cleaning throughout the country. Whether it will continue until every house is cleaned is quite doubtful. Democracy is very forgetful and forgiving after the first wave of indignation has subsided. So long as members of the board of education lack the qualifications of Professor Fc

the schools of Rochester will be administered solely in the interest of the public. Such administration will retain in the service of the city such educational experts as Superintendent Carroll and Primary Superintendent Ada Van Stone Harris. As is the board, for long, so is the supervising force; as is the supervising force, so are the teachers; as are the teachers, so are the children who attend the schools; and as are the children, for long, so is the community.

The standard of honesty and efficiency of officers which a democracy persistently demands is very low. When that standard falls to the point that the people are robbed to pay grafters, then the sleeping giant awakes to a semi-conscious state and strikes furiously about him. He is quite as apt to inflict injury upon the innocent as the guilty, and it repents his amiable heart that he had struck out at all, and again he folds his arms in sleep. Such is the experience of democracy in every age. We know that eternal vigilance is the price of freedom but we are all so lazy!

#### **Culture Epochs.**

An inquirer questions the soundness of the pedagogy of a procedure advocated in an elementary school paper of some eminence. The following quotation suggests the matter in the question:

"In the immediate vicinity of Chicago, the Indians depended upon the following list of wild things for their vegetable food: acorns, roots of arrow leaf, roots of water lily, tips of cat tails, stems of reeds, etc. \* \* \* We take trips for the purpose of gathering these foods and preparing them for eating as nearly as possible as the Indians did."

The query is, Whether the child's repetition of the history of the race in his evolution requires that he pursue the occupations of the races of former periods in his school life.

This magazine has indicated more than once its attitude on this interpretation of the lesson taught by evolution. Such an interpretation would contribute to making a scientific procedure in teaching ridiculous, even if it were seriously advocated by scientific authorities.

The epoch theory of race development, which is another name for the evolutionary theory, is full of helpful suggestions to the school teacher and the parent, but it requires some intelligence to gather and use the suggestions.

It is true that the body of a child passes through a fish period, a canine period, a simian period, etc., in its prenatal evolution, but would it be inferred from this that during these different periods it must be nourished by the articles of diet of these different animals? The school has for long recognized that the physical and the psychic diet of the growing child must change as the bodily and psychic powers develop. What is this but the recognition of culture epochs and making the environment to correspond? But must the child live like an Indian or a monkey while in a corresponding stage of psychic growth? The Indian is an Indian because of the environment of that race through long periods of time. What has the education of a modern Anglo-Saxon child to do with the former practices of Indian savages?

Is it not the first business of education to bring the child, as rapidly as



may be, into a knowledge of the environment into which he has been born? child must consciously repeat the experiences of the race in his education? does not seem worthy of any serious consideration.

But this theory that the modern

### THE RATIONALE OF SPELLING.

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We publish in this number one section of Superintendent Gregory's paper. It is complete in itself, and will be followed in the December number by a discussion of errors in spelling which cannot be classified under either ear-mindedness or eye-mindedness.

The purpose of this discussion is by no means an attempt to solve off-hand the spelling problem. It is merely an effort to throw a little light upon it through the medium of child study. It has seemed to me that of all blind teaching we teachers do, the teaching of spelling is the blindest. It is empirical in most cases; reason, much less psychology, enters very little into our methods. We differ as to oral and written spelling, we differ as to the propriety of dictating words in sentences or in columns, and we differ as regards the use of spelling books and the degree of difficulty of words used; but why we differ, or what is the psychological basis of this or that method, few of us can say. And so we go on, and the product is bad, and we are criticised severely by the public because our graduates "can't spell." My only hope of interesting my readers arises from the fact that it represents a sincere effort to apply the principles of psychology to facts drawn from the school-room. It is an effort, semi-scientific, at least, to get at causes. The inferences have seemed sufficiently important to warrant me in radical changes in method in my own schools, and I offer them to you, not as finalities, but with the hope that they may turn your thought along somewhat new lines.

While Superintendent at Trenton, N. J., I sent to two classes in one of the schools two extracts to be dictated by the teachers and written by the pupils. The classes selected were of the fifth and seventh grades. In that city, the first grade usually represents two years; therefore, the pupils in the grades tested may be said to be in the 6th and 8th years in school; *i. e.* of an average of 11 years in one class and 13 in the other.

The extracts selected were the following:

SIXTH YEAR. "Once upon a time a man and his son were going to market, and they were leading their donkey behind them. They had not gone far when they met a farmer and he said, 'You are very foolish to walk to town and that lazy donkey walking behind you.' 'What is a donkey good for if not to ride upon?' 'Well, I never thought of that,' said the man 'and I am willing to please you'; so he put the boy on the donkey and started again on his journey. Soon they passed some men on the roadside. 'See that lazy boy,' said one of the men, 'he rides the donkey and makes his poor old father walk behind.' When the man heard this, he called to the boy and said, 'Stop a minute, let us see if we cannot please these men.' Then he told the boy to get off, and mounted the donkey himself."

EIGHTH YEAR. "One day, a ragged beggar was creeping along from house to house. He carried an old wallet in his hand, and was asking at every door for a few cents to buy something to eat. As he was grumbling at his lot, he kept wondering why it was that folks who had lots of money were never satisfied, but were always wanting more. 'Here!' said he, 'is the master of this house. He was always a good business man, and made himself rich a long time ago. Had he been wise, he would have stopped then. He would have turned his business over to some one else, and then he would have spent the rest of his life in ease. But, what did he do instead? He took to building ships and sent them to sea to trade with foreign lands. He thought he would get mountains of gold, but there were great storms on the water, his ships were wrecked, and his riches were swallowed up by the waves. Now his hopes all lie at the bottom of the sea, and his great wealth has vanished like the dreams of the night."

The words misspelled were marked by the teachers of the classes and returned to me. Availing myself of the assistance of a number of High School girls, I subjected the papers to the following treatment:

At the bottom of each paper were written the words misspelled in the paper; in each case the word correctly spelled was first given, and the incorrect spelling followed. These records were afterwards cut into slips and arranged alphabetically. An alphabetical table was then made out, giving under each word its various misspellings. To illustrate: foreign was spelled in six different ways, but there were nine cases of misspelling and once in each of the following

ways: forign, 4 times, and once in each of the following ways: foreigh, forhen, foren, forigen, forgin.

There were in all 324 cases of misspelling, 77 words misspelled and 202 forms of misspelling. The lowest number of forms of misspelling was one, the highest 18, the latter in the case of the word, journey. There were in all 80 papers examined. No attention was paid to the difference in grade. After this preliminary work had been completed, and the matter was in systematic form, I called a conference of about 30 intelligent teachers and submitted the results of the investigation. The matter was discussed as thoroughly as the time permitted, and some light thrown upon the meaning of the data.

Before considering the facts developed and the inferences drawn, a preliminary observation may be in order. It may be objected that the number of pupils tested is small. Usually in child-study investigations, a vast number of cases are treated. In answer, I desire to say that some of the lessons which I have drawn from the investigations are overwhelmingly indicated in the field covered, and I do not think that a wider field would reverse these conclusions. Regarding certain other conclusions found in this paper, I admit the paucity of data. In my own mind these latter conclusions are clearly indicated, although, of course, not proven. The investigation must, of course, be regarded as experimental or preliminary. I might add, however, that in widening the field we meet complications; introduce other considerations whose influence should not be lost in the mass, but should be estimated separately. For instance, the school investigated was located in one of the best portions of the city, and was composed of children of American parentage. Suppose I had mixed with the results I have obtained, those drawn from sections where the foreign population is in the ascendant. I think my results would have been confusing. The foreign children should be examined by themselves. They offer evidence of two kinds; first, evidence corroborating inferences drawn from other quarters; this evidence is just as valuable, considered separately as if it had been drawn from a mass of mixed data. Second, foreign localities teach a lesson peculiarly their own, and this we cannot afford to lose by mixing the data. Besides, in the investigation of spelling do we not first need to know the difficulties which the native born population finds; and second, those which the foreign encounters? The former are

essential errors often, perhaps, inherent in the language. The special difficulties of the foreigner are inherent in the foreigner.

The disclosures of the investigation may be approached in a rather interesting way by taking a few words and observing various forms of misspelling. I begin with the word, journey. On this word the pupils have expended the wealth of their ingenuity. I could not have invented so many spellings. I give the entire list: *journey, journy, jerny, gerny, jorney, jcirnic, jernary, gourny, journci, jurony, jorney, yourney, jœucry, jer, ji, jou*. Let us consider this list in some detail. It gives, as will be seen later, a conspectus of nearly the whole field.

There are 18 of these spellings, and the first 13 are founded on aural percept; that is to say, the ear has determined the wrong spelling. Of these 13 forms some are repeated by more than one pupil, thus: *journey* is given 5 times; the 13 forms, in fact, represent 22 mistakes. There were 27 mistakes altogether in the spelling of journey. Therefore, almost 82 per cent (22 out of 27) of the mistakes were ear mistakes. I mean that in such mistakes the boy had a percept of the sound, journey, and he translated that sound into writing in his own way, and there were 13 different ways. Mark you, these pupils had seen the word, journey, many times, but they had also heard it many times, and it was the aural percept that dominated. Probably they had written the word journey in spelling lessons, and been corrected and made to spell it right. All futile: the sound of the word determined the spelling in accordance with the boy's views of orthographical combinations. I should like to give out the same exercises to the same pupils again. The same pupils would probably spell journey wrong again, and in accordance with the phonetic laws, but would they the second time adopt the same wrong spelling?

I may as well say here that the whole investigation clearly indicates this law: viz., that the sound is the dominating element in children's spelling. I might give many illustrations, but one must suffice: *foolish* is spelled *foullosh, fulish, foulies, folish, follish, foulish, fourshil, furlash*.

Now, what does this teach? In my opinion this, at least, that spelling cannot be taught by writing alone. When a boy writes *jerney*, that visual percept satisfies his view of the facts of the case, of course, and I wish you to mark this statement, he does not *see* it to be wrong. But when the

word is corrected at the end of the lesson does not that fix the proper spelling? Not always. The wrong form has been associated with the sound and the association has not been broken. Why? First, because of the interval which elapses between the writing and the correction. The correction should be made instantly, with a shock, as it were, and this can be done only in oral spelling. Second, the association must be broken not once but many times if it is to be completely demolished. Now, oral spelling has greatly the advantage of written spelling in this respect. You can spell a word one hundred times orally while you are writing it ten times. Rapid oral spelling bears the same relation to written spelling that rapid mental arithmetic does to written arithmetic. In my judgment the oral spelling should always both precede and follow the written spelling.

In my case this means a complete overturning of my previous notions. For many years I had argued in this way: spelling is used only in writing; therefore the visual picture of the word alone is of consequence. Therefore spelling should be taught exclusively by writing and in sentences. During the last few years, to be sure, I had been weakening on this theory; but rather because I could not see that my theory was turning out good spellers than because I saw flaws in the theory. But the overwhelming evidence presented by this investigation reduces the matter in my mind to a certainty. The psychology of the written method is incontestable, but hard oral drill is evidently suggested by the predominance of ear-mindedness, indicated in the present investigation.

Let me, in discussing this question of ear-mindedness, call your attention to some subordinate considerations under the same general heading. They seem to me to be of great importance and throw a bright light on the relation of oral to written spelling.

First, it is to be remarked that not only do pupils know the sound of journey, but some of them know it wrong: *e. g.*, note *jorney*. The pupil who wrote this probably pronounces it with a long o.

Take the word, swallowed. I give the forms offered by the pupils. *Swalloed, swolloed, swolid, swolled, sallowed, swalled*. Note that the boy who wrote *swalloed* has the correct sound, and yet he wrote it wrong, but the boy wrote *swolid*, did not even have the correct sound; and he must write it wrong. The latter fact is true of the writers of

*swolled* (4 boys), and *swalled*. To proceed with a spelling lesson when everybody has the correct pronunciation of the words does not always result in accurate spelling, as has been already suggested; but, to proceed, as many teachers do, without being sure of the pronunciation, is surely foolish. Take wondrously, spelled 3 times *wonderously* and once *wondersly*. Do not these represent wrong aural percepts to start with?

Again, still considering ear-mindedness, the investigation indicates the interesting fact that certain pupils attach certain phonetic power to certain letters or combinations of letters. Thus, returning to journey, in *gerney*, and *gourney*, this is the explanation of *g*, and in *jeirnie* of *ie* and probably of *ei*; in the spelling *creaping*, note *ea*, and *creping*, *e*; etc. etc. Now this trouble is inherent in our language and presents formidable difficulties. We have few rules, and they don't help us much. For instance, take the rule: *g* is soft before *e*. Well then, what's the matter with *gerney*? We certainly spell *germane*.

I call your attention to this suggestion: These wrong views on phonetics are probably individual with each pupil; they are idiosyncrasies. This is very important if true. A little investigation, even notes taken from time to time, will reveal the tendencies of individual children in this matter and enable the teacher to anticipate what the child will do and prevent his writing the wrong letter, not only in journey, but whenever soft *g* is suggested. Thus "we have journey in today's lesson. With what letter does it commence?" "With a *j*," say the majority. "With a *g*," say a few. "Now let us look," says the teacher. But note that this method of procedure is oral. It has to do with an aural percept and contemplates the immediate aural correction of incorrect aural percepts. I insist on immediateness of correction. To wait an hour will not do. And I insist on the first approach being made through the ear, for it is the ear-mind, if you will allow me the expression, that is in error.

Again, one of the interesting and amusing facts concerning this matter of ear-mindedness is the contempt which children have for unnecessary letters.

Mark Twain once expressed his admiration of a young lady who, in a word-game, spelt *caf* for calf. He argued a certain directness, going straight to the point, in the young lady's make-up. And there is as much wisdom as wit in the story. It is our spelling that is irrational, and it is the

bad speller that is rational. My investigation, of course, offers many illustrations of the tendency I am discussing. Thus, note *journy*: (What's the use of the e?) *Jurny*: (What's the use of the o?); *Foks* for folks, *stoped* for stopped, *reck* for wreck, etc. In the word swallowed there were ten misspellings, and in only two of these did the last w occur.

What are we going to do about this? The Pollard method of reading claims to have solved this problem and from what I have seen of its work, I am deeply impressed with the justice of the claim. Mrs. Pollard's method of dealing with the phonetic eccentricities of our language is exhaustive and scientific. It represents in itself one of the most remarkable, thorough and practical bits of child study I know of.

Then, there are the phonetic alphabets and the double-printed books. I have not the time to discuss them, but I confess I do not see their value. So far as this investigation may suggest a remedy or method of teaching, I have the same inference to make as in the phase of the discussion just passed, viz.: We should anticipate the cases in which letters are omitted, and by concentrating attention on those points, prevent the occurrence of the omission. Perhaps the tendency to the omission of a certain letter is an idiosyncrasy of the child. Did you ever think of that?

In leaving this question of ear-mindedness, may I not suggest an explanation for the well known fact that children spell unusual words well and familiar words incorrectly. The unusual words have never been used in such a way as to form an aural percept. The percept is visual and therefore correctly written. But the child has learned to speak the familiar words before he saw them printed, and when he saw the correct form it did not displace the incorrect form already in the mind.

An interesting psychological inquiry is this, and I earnestly urge it on your attention: Does there lie in some corner of each child's mind a visual percept which is the constant translation of the aural percept of the word the child knows—*jerney*—for instance? And when he transfers this percept to paper can he write anything else? You adults are often in doubt as to the spelling of a word; but with regard to familiar words at least, the child is in no doubt; he writes *caf* with an insouciance that is simply delightful. If these visual images do sub-consciously exist, notice how

they persist year after year in spite of all your teaching. If they do exist, why not acknowledge their existence, expect them and combat them first and last through the approach by which the image entered the mind, viz.:—the ear? To blame or reproach a child for such errors is like blaming him for being left-handed. I shall return to this consideration, but at present note that here again there is a suggestion of an idiosyncrasy.

I dismiss for the present the question of ear-mindedness and come to a class of errors that clearly arise, at least in part, from visual aberrations. My word journey does not help me here, and this, of itself, is an interesting fact, as I shall presently show. Let us take the word, foreign. I give the spellings: *forign* (4 times), *forigh*, *forhen*, *foren*, *forigien*, *forgen*. Now, several of these spellings are entirely or practically phonetic. Notice *foren*. But on the other hand notice the letter *g* occurring in every spelling but two, i. e., in 78 per cent of the cases. In the last spelling, *forgen*, it is hard to believe that there was any aural percept at all. The *g* shows that the eye has been active in every case but two; just as the last *w* was left out in *swalloed*, where the ear was concerned, the *g* is studiously put in where the eye is concerned. The pupil doesn't know how to spell foreign, but he knows there is a *g* in it somewhere. Take the word minute. I have 20 misspellings, taking 17 forms. Now the phonetic errors given are these: *minnet*, *minuete*, *minnote*, *menat*, *minet*, *minete*. But on the other hand, consider these, remembering that from the child's point of view, the letter *u* is the unreasonable part of the word. *Minutt*, *mintue*, *mint*, *minunt*, *minut*, *minuate*. In some of these spellings the phonetic principle has also something to do, but the eccentric dancing around of that letter *u* is a purely visual matter.

Consider the two words *minute* and *foreign* together. Certain peculiarities are observable when they are contrasted. Minute is a common word, and therefore there was a previous image corresponding to the sound. But the printed or written word was *outré* as far the *u* was concerned, and hence arose errors which are not phonetic. Foreign is not a word for the child's vocabulary; it is purely visual, and hence the phonetic element enters very little into the misspelling. Notice also that there were only 9 misspellings of foreign, while there were 20 of minute. Of course, foreign had no original settler to expel, and minute



had; and in 20 cases the original settler, you see, held his ground.

I think this argument indicates that we need not fear the unusual words nor the danger of wrong percepts obtained visually. The fight must be made on familiar words, where aural percepts are concerned, for, as I have already said, it is a fight to gain territory already occupied by residents as obstinate as Boers. With reference to the class of words typified by the word, foreign, it is merely a question of learning, but the learning of the words typified by *journey*, means the unlearning of an alien language.

But teachers generally make their spelling lessons out of the unusual words and every day violate the principle for which I am now contending. Spelling books almost unanimously offer words unusual to the child. I almost think that if we taught well the child's own vocabulary, we could leave the new words to take care of themselves. When the child wants to use a new word, he can be taught to look up the spelling, as you and I do. We waste our ammunition in teaching spelling as we do.

(TO BE CONCLUDED.)

p. 12<sup>3</sup>

## HOW TO MAKE BIBLE READING INTERESTING TO CHILDREN

MARGARET H. J. LAMPE.

(CONCLUDED.)

### III.

Some one may ask why a teacher should spend time making a definite plan for Bible readings since all religious instruction is barred from the public schools. There are many good reasons, but, to those who prefer to consider the question solely in its intellectual aspect, the following will be a sufficient answer.

No one can read much of the world's literature without meeting so many allusions to Biblical incidents as to make a certain familiarity with them a pre-requisite of intelligent reading.

This is even more generally true than it is of Greek and Roman Mythology, without an elementary knowledge of which no person can be termed educated. Hence, a general acquaintance with the better known parts of the Old Testament is an essential part of a common education.

To arouse interest in the subject we must keep in sight the fact that children of grammar grade and high school age have a profound respect for historic truth. By laying hold of this and proving to their satisfaction that certain

parts of the Bible are as truly historic as their own text-books on History, we not only arouse their interest but gradually lead their minds to assume a receptive attitude towards the Book as a whole.

Bert's success in making King Solomon a man of flesh and blood by the help of his friend King Hiram of Tyre, pointed out to me one very practical remedy for the difficulty that seemed to beset so many of my pupils. Luckily it happened by a peculiar chance, that considerably more than half the high school pupils had recently begun studying Ancient History. So, at morning exercises, passages from the Old Testament bearing directly upon the History lessons were read. For example, while the classes were studying the "Shepherd Kings" of Egypt, the story of Joseph; during the period of restoration, that of Moses. The same plan was continued while the Chaldeans, Assyrians, Babylonians, and Persians respectively were under consideration in the class-room and a special effort was made to connect Bible stories and characters with famous historic personages, such as Sargon, Sennacherib, Nebuchadnezzar and Cyrus. Thus pupils were led to give intelligent attention to chapters from the Pentateuch and the Books of Kings, Chronicles, Daniel, etc. The historic prophecies in the last named aroused especial interest.

In connection with the corresponding history lessons and readings, a few poems like "The Destruction of Sennacherib," "Belshazzar," "The Burial of Moses" and "Absalom" were used.

All these stories were unified by a careful though brief outline study of the Jews as a nation just before begin-

ning Greek History. During this time, home readings in the Bible were assigned to the classes. It was very noticeable, however, that those pupils who had access to a copy of some very simple "Bible History" retained the facts better than those who went directly to the Book. Several explanations for this might be given but it is undoubtedly due in part to the fact that the general vocabulary of high school students is by no means large.

In this connection it may be well to call the attention of teachers to the desirability of using the "Twentieth Century New Testament" for morning readings. For the benefit of those not familiar with this work let me say briefly that it is a recent translation of the Testament into modern English and is exceedingly attractive to young people because it is as easy to understand and presents as vivid pictures to them as any story-book written today, but yet is as accurate a translation as King James' version. Indeed quite a number of middle-aged persons have told me that this volume made Bible reading a constant source of pleasure where before it had been only a duty to them. As one lady said, "This new translation has made a great change at our house. My husband and I always did read the Bible—but not very often. Now we use it every day because we *like* to read it instead of as formerly because we felt we *ought* to do so, but would omit it for any good excuse. Now there is *life* in it."

Lastly, in a school where morning readings have ceased to be perfunctory, and there only, moral and disciplinary ends can easily be attained by the selection of passages suited to the occasion

or to the needs either of groups or individual pupils. Without either remark or even pointed glances such selections so used generally make a distinct impression in the right quarters. For instances, judiciously used, the first and third chapters of James rebuke looseness of tongue, the thirteenth of First Corinthians punishes deliberate unkindness, the thirteenth of Romans condemns insubordination. But why multiply examples? Anyone can find in the Bible keen reproof for every fault. But, be it observed, *these selections must be used sparingly and only when deemed immediately needful, in order to be effective.*

In connection with this I will venture to say that the reading of passages "good at any time" is inadvisable for children. It dulls their sensibilities. Let any one who doubts this try reserving, say the last chapter of Ecclesiastes and some of the most com-

forting Psalms, exclusively for occasions when death has visited the family of one of the pupils, or has suddenly removed some well-known citizen; and then mark the expressions on the faces of the pupils while he reads.

Every time connection is missed between the feeling of the child and the reading which is the instrument selected, his higher sensibilities are blunted and they are rendered one degree more callous. With the young the connections between thought, feeling, and life must be both short and direct. Artificial emotion is foreign to them and whatever they regard as sentimentality they not only reject but resent very strongly. So it is very necessary to choose "times and seasons" most carefully in striving to arouse their spiritual nature. "A word in season, how good it is," but even the finest word out of season is worse than wasted.



## Within the School-Room.

A Department of Observation and Reports of Classwork and School Management Conducted by George Alfred Brown.



### The Course of Study.

#### III.

##### READING IN THE ENGLISH COURSE.

As soon as the children have learned to read a few words the most important question for the teacher to consider is, what shall they read, that is, what interest or what need if any in the child's nature shall we attempt to supply through the reading lesson. In the article of last month it was stated that the special function of English in the elementary school course was the expanding of the soul through the expression of human thought. For some six years before school age, the life of the child has been enriched and his powers of sympathy, of appreciation, of independent action, and of other qualities of personality have been expanded by personal contact with family and playmates, by direct activities, by oral expression, and other opportunities afforded in his immediate contact with life. When we more fully understand the function performed in the development of the infant soul by the spoken word and the organization of a language center in the brain, we will be better able to prepare reading matter for the elementary grades so as to fulfil the culture function of this subject.

Before the language center is developed the activity prompted by the soul's appreciation of experiences, sympathy with others, and aspiration

to direct life must be responsive to environment and direct in its influence on the motor centers of the brain. The activity is as immediate in its character as is that of instinct because there is as yet no means for conscious direction. A child at the very beginning of its life, however, is possessed by a power to act in a characteristic way. Yet we cannot call this nature of the personality an instinct, because it expands at once into the form of consciousness and becomes a means for an evolution of individuality. It is thus the personality is freed from the limitations of blind instinct and the child is thrown upon his own responsibility for a self-organization of motives for life, and for the choice of the ideas and lines of action he will follow from among those open to him. The great fact of education must always be kept in mind that it is an evolution of the individual life from a lower plane to a higher. Each distinct step in advance results in a change—a new centering as it were—of personal attitude toward life and a new basis on which to organize its relations and activities. This fact has just as much bearing on the work of the primary school as on that of the high school or university. It requires that the school do more than merely cultivate and nourish present interests of the child's life. It must supplement and perfect the conditions through which a higher phase of human nature may emerge into being.

The education of defectives, especially such cases as those of Laura Bridgman and Helen Keller, gives the best opportunity to observe how the mind grows under the stimulus of personality as it strives to realize the powers of its human nature and rise to a conception and a life akin to divine being. The first fact of importance which these cases help to substantiate is that the definite consciousness manifested in the symbolizing act of perception is first organized through the sense of touch. This means much because an analysis of the different senses shows that touch is the only one which can be used directly as a means for expressing the soul's sensitiveness. Taste and smell are almost entirely receptive senses, bringing sensations to the mind but not used by the mind to express in any direct way to others the will of its own personality. Hearing is a receptive sense until the speech centers of the brain begin to be formed when it becomes a guiding sense for this form of expression, and sight also, although it comes earlier than the others to the help of touch as a guiding sense, is a receptive sense until touch and motion are brought into use by the personality to express the desire or the appreciation and sympathy of the child for some condition in his environment. Touch then is the only sense that can be used directly and independently of the others in forming the first perceptions. These percepts arise through a transformation of sensations by means of which the things sensed are related to the appreciative and expressive life of the soul or personality, and touch as the one sense

that can be transformed in its use from a receptive sensation to an immediate expression of will or of feeling in a caress or a repulsion, is the first means available to the ego for the organization of percepts.

From this sense of touch with its double use, is developed on the side of the physical organism all of the other senses since they are but highly specialized functions of the touch sense, and on the side of the psychic life it furnishes a means of expression, in the accomplishment of which the soul develops a mental power. By the mind sensations are organized as images of experience, and these images symbolized in some arbitrarily chosen or accepted signs. Such signs in their original form generally expressed, in some unique and personal way, the effect on or response of the personality under the experience of the particular sensations thus imaged. The child today creates but few signs of his own in transforming sensations into percepts, for the language of his race is crowded upon him generally in excess of his needs for symbols to express his experiences. This race language was organized very early in its history from a system of signs into a body of entirely abstract and arbitrary symbols. These were built up on a comparatively few basal units in order to make it possible to have signs common to all in the community for the great multitude of percepts possible to the human being.

We get a glimpse of the new power that language gives to the soul in the experience of Helen Keller in learning to use words. We read in her autobio—

graphy of the effort her teacher, Miss Sullivan, made to give her a key to the use of signs to express her desires. In the first case the little Helen, seven years old and living in a world of absolute darkness and silence to her, was made to experience in close connection and with many repetitions the touch of an object and the touch of a succession of signs made on her hand, for instance, whenever she took up her doll the signs for d-o-ll were made on her hand, and similarly for water whenever she washed, and for many other objects, and Helen was led to form the same signs on the hand of Miss Sullivan. Before any symbolizing sense was awakened, Helen could make these signs correctly for a large number of objects that gave a different touch sensation. But one day, as Helen tells us, she and her teacher were at the pump. The sign for water had been made on her hand and she had enjoyed playing with the water running through her fingers as it was pumped, when she suddenly realized that she could command the pumping by making the sign on her teacher's hand, and that as this sign named water so the other signs made in connection with their objects were names, also. She immediately led her teacher from object to object demanding a sign for each. She had found a means for expressing her desires and preferences in the world of her experiences in a way to make her companions understand them exactly, and by the same means she, also, could understand definitely their wishes and thoughts. She was no longer an isolated physical existence, for her life had suddenly become one with the common fellowship of the human life

about her. She even tried to bring her pet dog into this communion, and spent some time making signs on its paw and trying to teach it to know her meaning, but she finally found that the dog lacked the power to make the sign stand entirely for the thing. He could go no further than to look for or do the thing itself that was associated with the sign.

In this case of a sudden revelation of the use of language, its power to expand life into a new world of community interests appears with dramatic effect. Is it not evident that in real education each new word should come to the child glowing with its part in this revelation of an enlarged common life? In most cases the word cannot come to the child in its full meaning but when his inner life or outer experience is striving toward this meaning the word should be so presented as to enlighten a particular thought or condition and perhaps increase the meaning given to words already in use. I saw, this month, an excellent presentation to a first grade class of the article "the" which illustrates this method. The teacher was writing directions on the board as the reading lesson, and wrote "John bring a girl to me." John escorted one of the girl members of the class to the teacher's side where she stood. Other sentences asked that a big ball, a blue box and other things be brought also. Then the teacher wrote, "John, put a girl on a chair." John brought a large chair to the front of the class and escorted another girl from her seat in the class to this chair. At this the teacher laughed and said she had not written that sentence so that it told just what

she wanted done, and asked the second little girl to go to her seat, removed the chair, and told John to notice the change she made in the last sentence. She then changed the a's to the's making the sentence read, "put *the* girl on *the* seat." John at once escorted the first girl back to her seat. The other sentences were then re-written directing that *the* ball be put on the table, *the* blue box in the closet, etc. Another excellent device used was to draw with a few lines a sketch of a table and of the door of the closet instead of writing these words in the sentences just given, as the children did not know them. The value of each step in this work including the seating of the wrong girl before the use of the article, the, in the sentences is apparent.

But the present discussion was intended to reach the subject of reading material. The use of the blackboard as a means of bringing written words before the child as a variation from spoken words in giving directions, and as part of conversations and language work, has been commended in these columns many times. But when the child takes up a book to read we know that there is a different attitude from the conversational and social relation of direct communication. The book can affect the reader only by appealing to that inner life of personality which demands for its field of activity the great body of the universe, of which it feels its power to become a consciously directive force. Literature for mature life can be effective only as it brings into view some common unifying purpose thus giving to all life a spiritual significance. Even when the reading matter gives only incidents of ordinary

experience, it must present these in such a way to make the reader feel that the interest or value they have to the individual involved, is such as he can appreciate under like conditions; that is, the matter is presented not as a photographic record of events but as an exposition of human interests of a certain kind. This is true, however honest the author may be devoted to reality.

Literature, therefore, opens a new world to the mind in which the values and interests of the soul are seen as they are in real life, and our common personality is revealed clothed as an individual only through the incidents of actual living. To apply this doctrine to the course of study requires an understanding of what may be called the successive culture epochs of the maturing soul in its conceptions of personality relations in this greater world. The activity of its own nature as personality is the force which draws each succeeding enlarged conception of human and divine relations into the life of the individual. Culture epochs, as the genetic psychology of the individual may reveal, will be the subject of the next number.

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#### Observation Studies.

##### THE VALUE OF FORMS FOR ORGANIZING THINKING.

I have visited many schools during the month in four states. A report in sufficient detail to characterize the individual schools would take the space of an entire journal, and I find it difficult to select what may be of most interest at the present time. The geography lesson reported below is taken because it shows a concentration and an organization of the children's thinking

often lost sight of in these days of many sided interests and large general notions of industrial or other human relations, or of function in some organic whole. None of these things were entirely omitted but a structure or form for geographic study was organized and held to as the necessary basis for perceiving that these other relations were true.

The first part of the lesson was a review of the geography of South America, and last half a first lesson on Europe. During their study of South America, the pupils had made relief maps on which the characteristic flora, fauna, and products of industry of the different regions were indicated by various devices and some picturesque features, such as the volcanos surrounding the valley of Quito, the tree dwellers of the Orinoco, the tropic Selvas, and the plumes of the pampas grass, were sometimes represented by pictures or otherwise. In the review lesson a number of pupils went to the blackboard and to each was assigned a subject, as; the location of the various highlands; the river systems; the industries of Brazil; characteristics of the Andes, etc. Those in their seats recited on the location, boundaries, terminal capes, political divisions, climatic conditions, industries, etc. Then the others explained their maps or read the descriptions they had written. The clearness with which each subject was handled indicated a definite and organized method of study in attacking a question. Some of these forms of statement were brought out in the new lesson on Europe.

In defining the location of the continent or of any division of it, a defi-

nite ordering of the ideas involved was required. The value of this order in the presentation of a topic was re-discovered by many of the pupils as the recitation brought definiteness to their conception of the form of Europe acquired from map study. In beginning this lesson one of the pupils traced the outlines of Europe on a globe, compared the size with the other continents, indicated its general location between parallels of latitude and meridians of longitude, and described its general form as that of a great peninsula extending westward from the northern part of Asia. This description was then put into the form of a definition of location by several pupils.

Not too much time was spent in trying to have all the class see the advantage in clearness in following this general form of description for the continent, as its value was repeatedly brought out in defining the smaller divisions. But each child reciting was directed easily into this form by the teacher. Europe was defined as one of the smallest of the continents, and situated in north latitude between parallels 36 and 70, and in longitude extending from about the 40th meridian east to the 10th west from Greenwich. It was bounded on the north by the Arctic ocean, on the east by Asia, on the south by Asia, the Mediterranean Sea, and the Strait of Gibraltar, and on the west by the Atlantic ocean. This general definition or perception of Europe was now enriched by details of form. The limiting capes were defined as North Cape extending into the Arctic ocean, Cape Finisterre extending from the northern part of Spain into the Atlantic, and so on. The divisions of the



land made by the seas were traced in the great peninsula's, and these were defined as extending from, and in such a direction, and bounded by such waters on the other three sides.

This was a fifth grade class and the clearness and precision with which the children worked was remarkable. This location work meant much to them because they had in mind from their study of the American continents, the effect of the different influences on climate, trade routes, etc, for these were frequently referred to. They were helped to get the pronunciation of strange words even, by imaging the character of the people who gave the names, as Skagerrack and Cattegat used by the old Norsemen, Finisterre, the scholarly geographer's Latin name for lands end, etc.

This recitation was observed by some fifty students in the city training school of Toledo. The review part of the lesson was conducted by a pupil teacher and the advance work by the training-school teacher, Mrs. Ella M. Baird. The training-school class were studying the subject of perception in their psychology work, and were expected to follow its application to teaching in this lesson. There was some danger that these young students would consider that the form of presentation was the essential factor in perception and that the child would necessarily get the percept if he followed this form, whereas the form was valuable not as a means of perception at all, but as an aid to the organization of the successive percepts which the lesson required into a basis for clear and definite thinking. Europe was to be

perceived not as an entirely new and independent body of land but as a continent, of the conditions in which the mind could judge and reason as it had done in the case of the American continents.

This lesson was so well connected with the previous work of the pupils through the review part of it as to minimize the possibility of the training class misinterpreting the formalism used.

Perhaps when we know more about the way the mind grows, our psychologies for teachers will not give so much space to an analysis of the intellect into the various factors of the process of every judgment, with the implication that the steps in the growth of the mind correspond with these elements of the intellectual process.

Perception is a spiritual process requiring the activity of the soul with all of its powers. After perception, consciousness may continue its activity with the emphasis on the emotion, or the determination of further action, or the judgment of relations, and so on. But the percepts which are the basis of this consciously directed mental activity are possible only as the soul reaches out as a unit claiming fellowship in some way, establishing some relation of values, and some determination of desire or attention. That transformation of a physical sensation into a spiritual fact of the life of the soul which we call perception is to be comprehended only as the expression of the nature of personality including, in an implicit form, every phase of its power.

The growth of the mind is a growth of power to extend the life of the soul

to larger, more remote and fundamental ends. This requires an ordering of its various elements of activity, necessitates inhibitions to immediate response, and the use of forms of procedure the outcome of which is to in-

stitutionalize and so make more universal the life of all individuals. Let us not be too much afraid of forms even in the lower grades, providing they are such as the minds of the children recognize as helpful.

### PASQUALE MOSELETTE'S CAREER.

BY CHARLES A. MYALL.

The room was quite silent save for the occasional pat of the noiseless eraser that Josie Pintilla, the black-board monitor, now and again dropped upon the floor. Miss Hildreth was marking spelling papers, her eyes and soul keen in the search for dotless i's and crossless t's. Miss Hildreth was quite certain of the deterioration of the human race—People did not spell as well as they did twenty years ago.

At the far corner of the room, in the backmost of seats, Anunciato Moselette labored over her composition on the "Earthworm." Anunciato was staying after school to make up her work. She really had been very naughty and deserved the punishment, for when she should have been writing about the aforesaid interesting members of the animal kingdom she was figuring closely how to make eighty-three cents feed eight people for two days and also leave a decent amount for the father, Signor Pasquale Moselette, that he might go among his companions maintaining his dignity and self respect.

But now at last the composition was finished, having in form much the appearance of a copper-plate etching. Anunciato had been very careful, for she knew what excellent and exact taste Miss Hildreth had in regard to

the height and slant of letters. Tip-toeing to the front of the room she laid the precious paper on her teacher's desk and waited patiently. Miss Hildreth went on with the spelling papers while the girl's mind busied itself with thoughts of the eighty-three cents, Sissetonia's worn out stockings, Dominick's news stand, an early place in the line for Kohlsaats left-over bread, and last, but not at all least, that dear father who was such an unusual and beautiful ornament in a family like their own.

The clock ticked ponderously and as the time wore on Anunciato grew uneasy.

Miss Hildreth raised her head. "Anunciato," she questioned, fixing her eyes upon the dingy little figure before her, "Anunciato, where are your manners?"

The girl went back to her seat, while Miss Hildreth took up the composition and read:

#### THE EARTHWORM.

In the formashun of soil the earthworm is very valuable. This creature bites off the rock in large chunks. These chunks go through his body and he chews them up all the way. Then the chunks are very fine. Thus is good soil found for our fields and orchids. Erosun helps too, but you can't see erosun. He lives in rivers.

Miss Hildreth let the paper fall

heavily. "Oh, Anunciato," she sighed, "after all I've done for you. After all my careful explanations about the formation of soil. After all I've said about earthworms."

But suddenly Anunciato fell into a passion of weeping.

"Si, si," she exclaimed, dropping naturally into her broken Italian speech in spite of careful training, "all da time ertwarm ertwarm. What I got to do wit' heem? I no see heem; I no know heem. He no sella da newspapers. He no buya da shoes. He no giva da fader da mon! I gota no time to fool wit' ertwarm. I gota go home 'nd work."

She ran wildy from the door, leaving Miss Hildreth gasping for breath. Josie Pintella, too, stood as one petrified. She knew well Miss Hildreth's horror of a scene, for Miss Hildreth it was who prided herself upon the fact of the affairs of her room running always with mechanical precision. Some twenty-five years ago she might have been deceived into having a pupil force a situation upon her, but not now.

Josie it was who at last broke the silence.

"Please, teacher, yes ma'm," she begged in her best speech, "don't be all the time mad with Anunciato. She's got troubles, whole heaps of 'em. Sure she has, teacher."

"Troubles, Josie," Miss Hildreth interrupted, "we none of us have troubles only those we make for ourselves."

"Yes, ma'am," Josie politely acquiesced, "but maybe not sometimes. Anunciato's mother, she have eight children, then she get sick, all the time sick, rheumatism, consumption or something. Anyway, they take her to

the hospital 'nd make an operation on her and she died. Now Anunciato's gota' stand everything in the house what they needs."

Miss Hildreth caught her breath. These unusual things were so upsetting to one's philosophy.

"But the father, Mr. Moselette," the teacher interrupted. "There is a father, isn't there?"

"Sure there's a father," Josie returned. "But Pasquale Moselette's no good. He's a bum."

"Josie, Josie," the other exclaimed, "your English is quite too impossible today."

"Yès, m'am," Josie agreed, although she prided herself upon her ability in our speech, and then continued with her ministrations to the blackboard. For the final spotless effect she was using a kid glove. But unfortunately some of the buttons had not been removed and now and again as Josie's scathed hand swept tirelessly over the dark surface a sharp scratching noise sizzed through the room.

At last Miss Hildreth looked up. She did not like sudden or unusual noises. But something more must have bothered her just then for she asked quite abruptly, "Josie, what did you mean by saying this—this Pasquale Moselette was a—was a bum?"

Josie lay aside her glove and came very close to the teacher's desk.

"'Cause why, teacher?" she asked.

"'Cause that's what he is—a bum. All the time he sits in Salvatore Chiaro's saloon and sing songs. So loud he sings and with motions, just like the theater. But, teacher,—honest, Miss Hildreth, kill me dead if this ain't

true—Pasquale Moselette has the voice of a parrot.”

“But Anunciato?” the other interposed, “what does Anunciato think of it?”

“She thinks,” answered Josie, “that he has a voice for all what is fine. You can’t do nothing for her. She ain’t ever seen yet that he’s nothing but a loafer.”

Miss Hildreth began to put on her hat. How strangely like these magazine articles all of this did sound. It was the kind of thing people were talking about just now. She remembered a lecture she had heard at the Economics class upon house to house visiting in the Italian quarter. How remarkable she had never before realized how near she was to this unusual phase of life. “Josie,” she demanded at last, “do you know where Anunciato lives?”

“Sure, yes, m’am,” Josie answered, “on Sherman Place, on top of Chiaro’s saloon.”

Miss Hildreth staggered a little but her mind was made up, and soon she and the blackboard monitor were making their way through the teams and trucks of Harrison street, and then the women, children, garbage boxes, and dogs of Sherman Place.

Arriving at Signor Chiaro’s place of business Josie unconcernedly pushed her way in at the front door. But seeing her teacher’s hesitation she spoke quite sharply, yet ever with that note of deference. “Please, teacher, there ain’t nobody to hurt you. All the mens here are Italians.”

There was a sound of applause as they entered the room, but the moment they were seen the noise stopped abruptly, and amidst absolute silence

they made their way through the dim place to the stairway in the rear leading to the rooms above. Dark and alien-looking men were seen grouped about small round tables, and here and there a hat came off as the angular, though rather fine appearing woman with her little body guard passed on her way to the back.

They reached the top of the stairs, and without ceremony Josie pushed open the door which led into the apartment devoted to the sheltering of the large and interesting family of Moselette.

The room in which Miss Hildreth so suddenly found herself was rather large, it having at one time been used for a lodge hall. Across the width of it extended a board partition reaching two-thirds way to the ceiling. Three or four beds, a small table, some chairs and a kitchen stove constituted the furniture of the front half of the room. But Miss Hildreth’s eyes had no time for details for Anunciato was coming forward to meet her, saying in a little broken whisper, “Oh, teacher, please, Miss Hildreth, pardonna mia that I maka such bad manners. Please don’t have a mad with me.”

Miss Hildreth forgot her usual dignified acceptance of apologies and in a sudden rush of feeling assured her pupil there was little to forgive. But meanwhile Anunciato had dragged forward a more or less secure chair for her guest. Miss Hildreth being seated, Josie perched herself on one of the beds while Anunciato was soon quietly busy at the stove.

“You’ll have coffee, teacher?” she asked at last.

But the visitor evaded the ordeal by

declaring that never under any circumstances did she eat or drink between meals, a peculiarity considered by both Josie and Anunciato as little less than abnormal. Meals to them came whenever you were fortunate enough to have the chance.

A sudden sound at the back of the room caused Miss Hildreth to turn around. On the top of the board partition appeared three young heads looking for all the world like so many Jacks-in-the-box.

"My modder's Godchildren," explained Anunciato in simple dignity. "My modder 'nd dey modder were all da time friends. When my ma she die Mrs. Borellia come in 'nd maka all for us what she can. 'Nd now when I stand in da school she watcha da house 'nd Tony 'nd Rosario—"

"And who are Tony and Rosario?" Miss Hildreth asked.

"My broders," answered Anunciato, going to the window to peer anxiously into the darkening street. "Dey too little to go in da school." She raised the window and began to call: "Sistelia, Lunda, Oh! Sistelia, Lunda."

Soon two little girls ran into the room and were given baskets and a dime with the admonition to get early into the line for bargains in left-over bread and broken cakes and pies, and to "all the time have good manners" that their baskets might be well filled.

Anunciato then went on with her account of the affairs of the family:

"Dominick sella da papers on State street, and Sebastian he worka by da shoe stand. Da bambina—da baby, I mean, please teacher,—da leetle Angelo he die. We take heem out to da green fields where is everything like—a da

Italy. But he was-a lonesome for hees modder 'nd so he gone to see her."

It was nearly dark now and the room was very still.

At last Miss Hildreth broke the silence.

"But your father, Anunciato? You have a father? Does he not help?"

Suddenly Anunciato's drooping figure grew alert. The light from a street lamp shone softly upon her wistful little face, which now glowed with a rare spiritual beauty.

"My fader," she said, "is—is—what you call heem in English?—an arteest. Listen!"

She tiptoed to the stairway door and pulled it gently open. Below someone was singing from *Il Trovatore* with much fervor and tremolo. But the voice—well, it was hopelessly commonplace, and moreover worn to the breaking point.

"Non ti scorda di mia," sang the man below.

"Dolce far niente," breathed Anunciato. "Teacher, teacher, is it not beautiful?"

Miss Hildreth had told the plain unvarnished truth for too many years to fall lightly at such a test as this, so she said nothing but rose and laid her hand gently upon Anunciato's thin shoulder. But Anunciato with all a child's intuition felt the attitude of criticism toward the beloved, idolized father.

"Na, na," she cried, her sad eyes blazing in sudden flame, "you are like-a da rest. You mean he shoulda work; cleana da street, diga da ditch. Na, na, it is not for heem. When my ma she die she say like-a dis, 'Chito, Chito, your fader he vera smart, he singa wid Patti, Neilson, Scalchi, Scotti 'nd a

many more. Clito, bambino mia, maka for heem all what is-a good,—maka for heem all t'ings what is fine.' ”

“Non ti scorda dia mia,” sang the voice below.

Miss Hildreth, seeing that nothing more could be done then, stole softly from the room. Behind her came the faithful monitor of the blackboards. As they reached the main floor the man's voice died away and Miss Hildreth looked straight into the singer's face. It was all told there—the soft weakness, the love of ease, the lack of feeling for all responsibility. As they passed the man swept off his hat in an extravagant bow and held it pressed against his heart. The contrast of this dark smiling face with the wan little visage upstairs was too much for even Miss Hildreth's well disciplined feelings and as she stalked from Salvatore Chiaro's saloon she muttered under her breath: “The beast.”

It was about this time that the winter which had thus far been mild turned suddenly cold, and brought with the change all the attending hardships. Miss Hildreth looking at her some fifty charges with eyes that were beginning to see differently forgot her theories of the general shiftlessness and improvidence of the poor, of their own making of their sufferings, and commenced to wonder vaguely what she could do in the way of help. Particularly was she worried about Anunciato. Often and more often was the little girl absent these days and at last she ceased to come to school altogether. One bitter evening at Chiaro's saloon, Pasquale Moselette by the means of an interpreter, assured Miss Hildreth that Anunciato was out selling newspapers.

This was enough; the teacher wrote Anunciato's name on the delinquent list and sent for the truant officer.

Mrs. White, a dear, kindly woman of rare helpfulness, was pushed almost to the last stand these days of suffering and cold, but she took up this case of the Moselettes with all her blessed tact and insight. At the end of a long day of investigation she returned to Miss Hildreth with the decision that cruel as it might seem to Anunciato there was nothing to do but serve a warrant on the father for keeping his children out of school, and furthermore to declare him incapable of looking after his family.

“That poor little Anunciato!” finished Mrs. White, looking down into the dingy snow filled street. “It will be hard on her at first, for she fairly worships that simpering good for nothing father. It seems the mother spoiled him and now Anunciato is going on in the same way. We must save her from herself.”

“When is the trial to be?” the other asked, somewhat weakly.

“On Saturday morning,” the truant officer answered. “And I want you to be there for you really know more about the case than I do. Then too, having that dear little Anunciato in your room you couldnt' help but love her.”

Miss Hildreth sat up very straight. It was not usual for her to discuss her feelings with acquaintances. But Miss Hildreth was very truthful.

“Yes,” she said, at last, “I am interested in the child. I'll be there Saturday morning.”

The Juvenile Court presented a motley appearance that day of the trial of

Pasquale Moselette. There were several cases to be heard and the room was filled with wayward boys, with here and there a girl of the same disposition; habitual truants; harrassed fathers and mothers, some of them burdened with really delinquent children, more of them merely incompetent to the demands of parenthood; truant officers, heavy with the mingled feeling of duty and pity for their charges; and now and again a teacher or friend seeking to give what help might be in these family crises.

At the back of the room sat the Moselettes, all of them, from the, for once, serious Pasquale down to the tiny frightened Rosario. Their appearance was not quite so forlorn as one might expect, for Anunciato had risen early, thawed out the hydrant and heated sufficient water for the family to treat at least the visible portion of their anatomies to a quite unusual scrubbing. To be sure the children were using all the clothing they possessed in order to keep warm these days, so there were no changes in that line, but their heads had been brushed vigorously and Anunciato was quite pleased with the results. It was rather bad, however, there was so little with which to minister to their stomachs.

The morning wore away with its comedy and heart break, and at last was called the case of Pasquale Moselette. As it so happened the Italian interpreter was away ill, thus making it necessary for Anunciato to translate her father's evidence. Pasquale, strange and alien among these people and surroundings fell into vehement, unending explanations, now weeping, now gesticulating wildly, now striking

an extravagant gesture of despair, and now smiling upon the judge in child-like blandness. Poor Anunciato's English was quite unequal to the torrent of appeal, and when the kindly man behind the desk insisted upon silence from Pasquale and bade the little girl come to him, she went quite willingly and stood beside this person she had so dreaded.

"My dear," the judge asked, "what did you eat for breakfast this morning?"

"I hada no hunger," she answered, evasively.

"And your shoes, Anunciato," he went on, "why did you not wear your best ones today?"

"My stockings, yes, please, they vera warm," Anunciato returned with a catch in her voice.

"And little Tony and Rosario, are their stockings warm? Anunciato, I am your friend. Won't you tell me how things are at your house—if it is so very hard for you to get along?"

"Oh, judge, please sir, the winter so vera cold, 'nd the coal he costa so dear, 'nd da children dey maka so much hunger. With Dominick da business no good, 'nd Sebastian he shine-a no shoes when it give-a so much snow. I canna make all da time now what is good for us."

There was much more, all in fact, of this struggle for warmth and food in these days of continued cold and snow. But never once came the suggestion of criticism toward Pasquale, the idea of his helping to take the family burden seeming never to cross the speaker's mind. But the judge already knew enough. Turning sharply upon the bewildered Pasquale, he addressed him in

English, forgetting for the time that the man understood no word he was saying. "And you call yourself a father?" he demanded. "What are you doing for your family except making yourself an extra burden for them? While little Anunciato there is picking up coal on the railroad tracks you are setting warm over your bottle of wine. But it stops now, sir. On Monday morning you get to work. I'll see you are taken on by one of the street cleaning crews, and every Saturday night you are to give your money to Anunciato for the family expenses. And if you don't do exactly as I say I'll have you arrested and put in jail."

A little tragic cry of despair broke from Anunciato's trembling lips.

"Judge," Mrs. White interrupted, "the man understands no English."

"Then Anunciato must tell him," the judge answered.

"Tell heem that?" the child broke in. "Tell heem he must worka on da street with da gang? Oh, judge, I canna, I canna! He is not for that. He is for all what is fine. Listen, judge, please. My modder 'nd fader dey come outa da Italy, 'nd my fader he make much mon, he singa in da—what you calla heem in English?—in da chorus da granda opera. He singa long in da New York, da Philadelphia, da Boston, 'nd den dey come-a in da Chicago. 'Nd my ma she maka seeck, 'nd all da time my pa he waita she get better. 'Nd da children come, eight children, 'nd my ma she work 'nd work, 'nd all da time my pa he so good he wait till she get better. 'Nd last he go by da big boss, da opera, 'nd da boss he lie, he say my pa no good, he say he canna sing no more. 'Nd den my ma she say, 'Chito,

maka all what is fine for heem,' 'nd she die."

There was a tense pause, and then the judge turned to Dominick and said:

"My boy, you tell your father what I said about his going to work. Don't leave out anything." Turning to Anunciato, he added, "You must not think us cruel, little girl. We are going to do the very best for you we know how. The two little boys are to go to St. Joseph's Home for a time, and the little girls to St. Vincents', and you are to go out every Saturday to see them and play with them. I will give you an order on the Relief Fund so that you and the two elder boys may have new shoes and underclothes. The boys are to work after school and you are to keep the house clean and your father is to give you his wages every week."

This was not good law but the judge knew his people.

The court room was very still. Anunciato, supported on either side by Miss Hildreth and Mrs. White, seemed unable to comprehend the sudden turn in affairs. Outside, in spite of the cold a hurdy-gurdy was playing "Under the Tropical Moonlight." Slowly that look of utter dejection fled from the little girl's face and something like hope was there.

"Judge," she said, "may I tell you somathing? May I maka a secret with you?"

The judge, professing himself delighted to have such a confidence, Anunciato went to him and whispered long and earnestly into his ear. A look of kindly sympathy and understanding spread over the gentleman's face and he said:



"Yes, your scheme is a good one, and when you have saved your first five dollars come to me and we will see if somewhere we can't find another to keep it company."

Anunciato clasped her hands. "Oh, judge, all da time I will save-a da mon' to maka what is fine for heem," and she looked upon her father in mingled joy and pride.

The winter wore away and then the spring. Every day Anunciato was at school and each Monday had something to tell Miss Hildreth of her visit with the children at the Homes. Sometimes she cried a little, but always there was that returning joy in the new hope she nursed within her heart. What her plan was she told no one except the judge, not even her own family.

However in a burst of confidence one day she said to her teacher :

"Soon, I think, my pa he need na work in da street no more. It is so hard for heem. He is not for that. Yesterday da judge he give-a me a paper for da man on Wabash avenue. Da man he say he give me what I need cheap; he say I pay heem every month five dollars for two year."

Miss Hildreth tried to appear intelligent, but she acknowledged herself to be rather at sea in the matter.

The summer came into its long vacation and Miss Hildreth prepared herself for a complete rest at her sister's home in one of the suburbs. Lying deep in her hammock one day she became vaguely aware of some strange words passing through her mind.

"Non ti scorda di mia," sang the thought.

She listened. From the road came the sound of a street piano working out the airs of *Il Trovatore*. A voice worn and unsteady but filled with much fervor and tremolo took up the refrain.

Miss Hildreth hurried through the gate and along the road. Suddenly the music stopped and the little girl who had been turning the handle of the instrument came bounding toward her.

"Oh, teacher, teacher," exclaimed Anunciato, throwing her arms around the tall spare woman, "see I maka for heem all what is fine. Last week the judge and me we buya da piano. 'Nd now Dominick 'nd da Sebastian dey pulla it round till we can buya da horse; 'nd I turna da crank to maka da music; 'nd my pa," turning to throw a smile at the profoundly bowing Pasquale, "my pa he all da time sing, all da time sing so beautiful, 'nd holda da hat for da mon'."

## COMMENT.

### SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

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GEO. P. BROWN, Editor

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THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL PUBLISHING CO.

BLOOMINGTON, ILLINOIS.

#### THE POPE'S ENCYCLICAL.

One of the most remarkable documents emanating from the Vatican since the promulgation of the Immaculate Conception by Pope Pius IX is the encyclical just issued by Pope Pius X, attacking modernism. This new instrument has made a profound impression upon all Europe. Both church and laity are concerned and some fears are expressed that the Pope, by running counter to the prevailing tendencies of the times, will weaken himself in other ways, and possibly cause a breach which it will be hard to bridge over. The Pope said: "Modernism is a peril for the church. Its reforms in faith, philosophy, theology, and

history are all errors and drive those who believe in them to atheism. Boundless curiosity, pride of individualism, and disregard of true Catholic knowledge and discipline actually have spread modernism among the clergy."

The encyclical decrees that philosophy and theology hereafter must be taught in the Catholic schools and universities in the complete spirit of the Catholic Church and in accordance with the rules of the church. It is decreed that all teachers imbued with the spirit of modernism must be dismissed and bishops must compel the clergy and the faithful to abstain from reading papers inspired by the spirit of modernism or advocating the new theories. A board of censors is to be established in every bishopric to revise and edit all Catholic publications. The ecclesiastics are forbidden from sending papers through the mails or otherwise directing them without the consent of the bishop. The clergy also must keep a close watch upon their assistants to prevent violation of this ruling. Clerical congresses are forbidden except in cases when dangers of modernism and laicism arise. A body of supervision is to be formed in every diocese to prevent the spread of "new errors." All bishops are instructed that they must forward to the Pope individual reports regarding the matters covered in the encyclical."

This is an interesting matter to education. What is meant by "true catholic knowledge" must be interpreted by the teachings of Thomas Aquinas concerning the two kinds of knowledge. According to him there are two distinct sources of knowledge. One is the human reason, by which man acquires a knowledge of all matters pertaining to secular life. The other is faith in the revelations made to Holy Men of old, and by the Holy Catholic Church. This encyclical letter is one of these revelations of the church. Those who do not receive it as the truth are guilty of the sin of modernism. Now this is interesting to education as a movement to enforce the definition of knowledge formulated by Thomas Aquinas in the early history of the church.

### INDIANA TOWN AND CITY SUPERINTENDENTS, AND SCHOOL BOARDS.

This is one of the most effective associations of those interested in education for the improvement of conditions and organization of school work in the country. It is because of this association and the work it has done in years past that Indiana leads as a state in her care for public education. Every state needs such an association.

The meeting this year will be held November 7, 8 and 9 at Hotel Claypool, Indianapolis. Thursday evening is a joint meeting to discuss the two subjects of Teachers' Contracts, and of Fraternities. On Friday the superintendents discuss the new law for Training Teachers, and the classification under the law; with round table discussion of Future Legislation; Future Work of the Association; Uniform Text-books; etc. The School Board section discusses the enforcement of the Depository Law; Purchasing School Supplies; and How to Provide for Indigent Pupils.

On Saturday the Kindergarten, and Industrial Training are the subjects on the Superintendents' program

Supt. W. P. Hart of Huntington, is president of the superintendents' meeting, and W. M. Caylor of Noblesville of the School Board section.

### THE EDUCATIONAL COMMISSION.

Governor Deneen has appointed the commission authorized by the legislature to make a thorough investigation of the common school system of Illinois, and the laws under which it is organized and operated; to make a comparative study of such other school systems as may seem advisable, and to submit to the forty-sixth general assembly a report including such suggestions, recommendations, revisions, additions, corrections and amendments as the commission shall deem necessary.

By the terms of the bill, the governor was directed to appoint six persons, representing the various phases of educational work within the state, who, with the superintendent of public instruction shall constitute the commission. The appointed members are as follows:

Edmund J. James, president of University of Illinois.

R. E. Hieronymus, president of Eureka College.

Alfred Bayliss, principal of Western State Normal School.

Edwin G. Cooley, superintendent of Chicago schools.

A. F. Nightingale, county superintendent of Schools of Cook county.

Harry Taylor, principal of township high school, Harrisburg.

The bill provides \$10,000 for expenses of the commission. No salaries are paid.

### MICHIGAN'S GREAT TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The meeting of the Michigan State Teachers' Association at Battle Creek, October 23 to 26, was an immense gathering and a great in-

stitute in its influence for promoting better teaching.

The attendance was so large that the program had to be duplicated, the speakers appearing first at the Tabernacle and then to the overflow audience at the Post Theater. The newspapers estimate 7,000 teachers present. The Tabernacle has a capacity of 3,500 with a crowded limit of some 4,000. It was full for the first session on Thursday afternoon, and over crowded for the evening meeting at which Michigan teachers joined with a splendid spirit to honor Dr. Angell, president since 1871 of the State University.

The program of Friday morning was one to widen the teachers' view of his work and to suggest some of the larger means at hand for better education of the children. Dr. Melvil Dewey of New York talked on the use of libraries. He urged the extension of their use and broadening of other work to include the furnishing of good music and cultural amusements. Mrs. Sarah E. Hyre, of Cleveland, talked on the state's duty to the child in her vigorous way. Whether one agrees with her premises and reasoning or not, the immediate laws she advocates are needed and the public sentiment that will require the enforcement of such laws must be aroused. Dr. A. E. Winship of Boston was the last speaker and talked in his characteristically enthusiastic way on "The Making of Manly Boys." This program was repeated to a second audience at the Post Theater.

The Friday evening program was a most delightful entertainment, an analytical piano recital by Dr. Henry G. Hanchett of Washington, D. C., entitled "A Life Study in Tones." This furnished an excellent illustration of Dr. Melvil Dewey's suggestion of connecting the presentation of good music and entertainments with the other cultural interests of public and school libraries.

On Saturday morning Superintendent E. C. Warriner of Baginaw gave an interesting description of German Industrial Schools, and Dr. S. C. Schmucker gave an earnest talk on Nature Study.

Friday afternoon the teachers divided into some dozen section meetings, each with a program providing for lively and helpful discussion.

The most wholesome and delightful feature of this great meeting was the social reunions of many different groups at the banquet table. Four hundred Ypsilanti Normal graduates ate at the Auditorium and gave eloquent toasts afterward. Two hundred-fifty grad's. of the U. of M. were served at the Sanitarium with President Angell as guest of honor. The Mt. Pleasant and Kalamazoo Normal gathered a hundred and fifty each at church parlors, and Olivet, Hillsdale, Kalamazoo Colleges and other institutions held reunions attended by from one to two hundred each.

The discussion given at the opening meeting on Thursday afternoon were typical of the range of the entire program. It provided for the earnest scientific study of education in its details, and, also, for the inspiration coming from great teachers with the enthusiasm of

artists in their work. Superintendent H. M. Slauson of Ann Arbor, in his president's address, considered some essentials of effective teaching. This was a plea for the serious side of the teachers' work, the development of boys and girls in self-control, alertness, perseverance, and integrity that they may become men and women of executive power, moral courage, culture, and patriotism. These are to be the results of a good school although no textbooks that the children use explain the qualities or give rules for acquiring them. Effective teaching requires that every subject be so presented that the pupils attack and solve its problems independently, preserving with an intensity of application until a solution is found without the use of a pattern. History is of most importance as a training of judgment, and economics in some form should come into the elementary course and be taught so as to provoke thought. The love of good literature is essential to the best results of the school. Naturalness of action and respect of others results from true interest in life. "The call of the wild" in the glorification of brawn and acceptance of rough behavior is counteracted by effective teaching, and gentlemanliness and womanliness of the highest type developed.

Prof. F. A. Barbour, of Ypsilanti followed President Slauson with an eloquent address on the subject, "Can Literature be Taught?" When we say that the school must have as its main purpose the development of character, we do not mean that there is no character until teaching has created it. We mean that the natural power of the soul to act as conscience and establish character is to be so cultivated as to enable man to meet the complex and far-reaching life of modern civilization with this power trained to act normally under such conditions. Similarly when we speak of teaching literature, we mean the cultivation of the native powers of the mind which act together in the appreciation of literature. Prof. Barbour analyzed these elements and illustrated the training which should be given to each phase in order to give one the power to love literature. These elements include, really, the three fundamental elements of the activity of mind, the feeling, the will, and the intellect. Literature is loved in its form, or rhythm and cadence. This appeals as music to the soul through the feeling. Literature is loved for its action or plot—its drama of life—which appeals to the creative will. And it is loved for its valuations of life which appeal to the judgment. Prof. Barbour did not state the argument in this bald way. His presentation was a fine example of literary effort as oratory. He carried his audience into his work and thought until they seemed to be with him in his class room experience, and feel the value of every part of the training given. First the value and love of rhythm and form is appreciated by every primary teacher, and training to develop this love of form as an appreciation of beauty in every expression is needed all through the grades and High School. As an illustration of the possibility of doing this, Prof. Barbour recounted his experience with classes in the Normal School in reading Chaucer and he

gave part of the prologue, in the pronunciation taught by Prof. Demmon with its perfect rhythm and cadence of verse. The appreciation of the audience was expressed by prolonged applause. The second element in the love of literature needs to be developed by careful training, also. Action and dramatic interest are always attractive, but these are given more powerful effect in the greater literature in subtle ways. As an illustration, the speaker referred to the scene in Macbeth with the vision of the daggers, and told of himself pondering on this scene until, as he read it in his study, he could feel the daggers there in the air before him.

As training in the third phase of this work of teaching literature, the use of well selected orations is needed, for one must learn to feel from the words of an oration their power to sway an audience if he is to be prepared to picture characters from the incidents the author uses in a piece of literature.

The conclusion of Prof. Barbour was that the love of literature is not as readily secured by the young through simply reading plenty of good literature as it is by a properly selected use of material to build up a power to appreciate the higher appeal each phase of literature makes to the soul, as these are brought together in more and more subtle and powerful ways by great writers.

The next meeting of this association will probably be held at Saginaw. Supt. Wm. G. Coburn of Battle Creek was elected president, Prof. J. O. Reed of Ann Arbor, vice-president, Prof. J. P. Everett, of Mt. Clemens, secretary, and W. H. Conkling of Dowagiac, treasurer.

#### THE ILLINOIS CONGRESS OF MOTHERS.

The eighth annual meeting of the Illinois State Congress of Mothers was held October 2, 3, and 4, at Urbana.

On Wednesday evening were delivered the welcoming addresses and a reception was held in the Woman's Building.

Thursday morning Mrs. Brill delivered the annual president's address from which the following extracts are taken:—important changes were made in the by-laws this year, committees were enlarged, the advisory board was increased to 12, numbering among its members men of prominence in the political, religious and educational world. The dues for affiliated clubs of more than 100 members were placed at \$5.00, making this provision harmonious with that of the National Congress.

A biennial announcement, pamphlets on High School Sororities and Fraternities, on Limited Segregation, on Kindergarten, and one on Fatherhood, have been issued.

Two conferences and two luncheons were held. Letters were written to County Superintendents asking them to allow us time to present our work at their Summer Institute programs. Favorable responses were received.

The Committee on Congress extension was enlarged. Juvenile Court work was extended to the larger towns. About 60 clubs are affil-

ed. Valuable additions have been made to the loan collection of papers in charge of the literature committee. More effective work could be done if the state were divided into districts presided over by capable workers. Clubs should, after elections, report list of new officers and delegates and send in club calendar. It would be profitable to hold an assembly day for mothers at our State Fair, also to co-operate with the Domestic Science departments of the Farmer's Institutes and promote the forming of circles in the country. Chautauquas also are a valuable means of disseminating knowledge of the work.

Life memberships are \$25.00 and probably the board would allow one or two of these to be spent for a library.

How to reach and know alien mothers is still an unsolved but important question.

The Congress should have quarters if only a small room.

Mrs. Edgar Hall, chairman of the press committee reported a great deal of work being done through the newspapers and a few periodicals.

Mrs. L. K. Gillson of Wilmette, who is also a vice-president of the National Congress, told of the work done at the Jamestown exposition, in the Mothers' and Children's Buildings. The former contained two rooms down stairs. In one was a library of books on the list approved by the Congress. These books were furnished free by the different publishers and were collected by a firm in Philadelphia. Here also was the office for checking the children. The Children's building had a kindergarten, nursery, play-room and kitchen. Between the buildings which were connected by a long covered porch, was a sand pile and merry-go-round. A child was taken care of for a day for 25 cents with 15 cents extra for lunch, if not provided. The kindergarten engaged the older children, many of whom lived on the grounds—some on the War-path—while a model creche was provided for the babies. Two of the great days for children were Fourth of July and Sunday School day.

The remainder of the morning was taken up with delegate's reports, and told of excellent work being done.

In the afternoon, Mrs. Fritts of Peoria, chairman of the Juvenile Court Committee, took charge of the meeting. She has visited all the institutions of the state during the past year. She introduced Judge Chas. B. McCrory of Quincy, who spoke in part as follows:

"The history of the laws in Illinois during the last decade is encouraging. We have made more progress in this respect than any other state in the union, with the possible exception of Colorado, and more progress within the last ten years than had been made in the entire world since the dawn of civilization.

The first acts passed, only permitted private persons to maintain industrial schools for girls and for boys. In 1889 an act was passed taking children out of criminal courts and treat-

ing dependent or delinquent. In 1905

the Juvenile court law proper was passed, which provided for dealing with parents or other persons who caused or contributed to the misfortunes of the child."

The speaker told of the struggles of a body of women to secure the adoption of the probation system. "This was finally done and an officer was secured and allowed a salary for the work. Homes and surroundings of the children were investigated, and all possible was done to improve environments and keep the children at home. Failing this, they were placed in good homes, preferably on farms. A few had to be sent to industrial schools.

Then the women asked him what further could be done, and he suggested the curfew law. This was enforced and much of the mischief which had heretofore brought children into court was stopped because it had been done after dark."

The speaker digressed and spoke of the injustice of the law regarding widow's thirds, and suggested that here was work for a mother's organization to attempt.

Judge McCrory was followed by Mrs. Alfred Bayliss of Macomb, who spoke on "Culture and the Mother."

The child should be taught in the home to be intelligent, industrious, self-reliant and honest. To be intelligent is not merely to absorb information, but to learn to think independently. To be industrious is more than drudgery, but to work with joy in the doing with some of the joy of a creator. To be self-reliant means to be able to depend on one's self, to have resources for entertainment in one's own mind, to be able to decide questions for one's self, in other words to have *power*. To be honest, means to be able to estimate one's own vices and virtues with exactness. To see one's self as clearly as we see others. The speaker interspersed her talk with many bright epigrams, witty stories, and beautiful description, and made one of the most delightful addresses of the session.

Mrs. Dunlap gave her report as chairman of the Domestic Science Committee, then introduced Mrs. Jennie Barlow who talked on Some Essentials of Long Life and Comfort. These she described in the order of their importance, Air, Water, Sleep and Food.

Owing to the lateness of the hour, Mrs. Mary B. Page, chairman of the kindergarten committee talked very briefly. She said we must learn to eliminate and strive toward simplicity, learn to recognize the great things. The personal influence of the teacher should be of cultural quality. The greatest thing in life is to give abundance of life.

Thursday evening, President L. C. Lord of the Charleston Normal School, gave one of the best addresses of the session. His subject was "The Critical Period in a Child's Education."

"Any subject that has to do with a human being is necessarily a complex one. No one knows precisely what elements enter into a piece of architecture to produce a work of the greatest beauty, or what combination of trunk and branch makes the most beautiful tree.

ill less can we decide what combination of eyes of head and heart produce the high-type of individuals. We may admire in man decision of character, in another his r feeling, but just how much of each produces the most perfect character is beyond us y. Evil as often comes from excess of as from that which is positively bad.

each period of a child's life may appear e time to be the most critical. But the of things is not measured by the intere may take in it for the time being. The tly lost and found excites in us a dispropnate interest. A newly discovered gold interests us more than thousands of acres d that have produced and will continue dduce their golden harvests of wheat and

Was the lost sheep of the scriptures of value than the ninety and nine? have doctors, teachers and ministers in mmunity who are interested in the physnd spiritual welfare of the children, but arent should take a greater interest than f these. Some schools say 'We must take thing the home chooses to put upon us.' whole boy goes to school." I do not about that. Suppose a boy has a ded liver. He brings that to school. He, often brings some phases of conduct to l which the home should have seen to efore.

s an opinion often expressed that the first e of a child's life is the most critical pe- Now, frequent repetition is often cong. We hear such expression as, as the is bent so the tree is inclined. A great n ecclesiastic once said, "Give me the even years of a child's life and he will nd die a Roman Catholic. Now suppose ke two boys and place one under Catholic ne under Protestant influences until the f seven, then reverse the process. Which row up a Roman Catholic?"

the first seven years character is not d. It is the period of imitation, image ing, the growth of the body, the growth f-consciousness. This is the plastic age. the next decade, the adolescent period, ns arise. It is the storm and stress per- In order to pass through this stage succly the previous decade should have been aration for it. Habits of strict obedience l have been inculcated. The child needs n self-control, just as he needs help to his taste or to control his body. The on only is how long shall this help be

A child's will should, in a sense be 1, but not like breaking one's back or a chimney, or even a colt, but should be t into subjection to a more intelligent

y parents declare that their affection prethem from insisting on obedience when, d, it is only lack of courage. s a sad, sad truth that many a mother it the cup to the lips of her son long be- e became a drunkard; not by offering lcohol, but by pampering his appetite by ig him unsuitable foods before he has aught to control his desires.

he first decade affection should be fost-

ered. The child's confidence must be kept. The mother should keep her accomplishments and the father retain close and friendly relations with the child for in the adolescent period he needs to be checked in his new energies. He needs a confidant. If he dare not seek his father, he often seeks the school principal.

The child should be taught to co-operate in the work of the home, no matter if help is plenty. A girl has a *right* to be taught her mother's accomplishments. There should be high and fine standards in the home. Let them see things done well, even if they do not do them. This is better than to be taught to do many things indifferently well.

Guide the adolescent with kindness, sympathy, but sometimes with vigor.

Teach habits of work, then play will be entered into with greater zest. There is a wide field of legitimate amusement. Let none be abused. All play and no work, and all work and no play are equally bad. It is sad to see an only child or a child of old parents who does not get proper development for lack of play, but it is sadder to see one at forty years of age with mind still fixed on frivolity. How shall we strike the golden mean?

If the parent is bookish let him carefully select matter for the child's reading. To do this wisely he must know the child's mind. He should select something that can be read with interest, not that which is merely improving and dry. A few books well chosen are sufficient.

All anyone can do is to suggest those ideals we wish to realize, and some of the results we wish to attain.

"I hope this Congress will attain its aims, but more I hope that *your* sons and daughters will realize all your hopes.

I hope the Congress will grow until *all* mothers are interested in it."

Friday morning Mrs. F. J. Scott spoke on Congress extension and read a letter from state Supt. Blair commending the work of the Congress.

Dr. Bertha Hamilton gave statistics of the marked improvement in work done by students after a year of limited segregation.

Mrs. L. D. Doty gave an interesting account of vacation schools and what wonderful improvements had been made in the home life of children who attended, through the industrial training they had received.

The closing address—In the Heart of a Book was delivered by Miss Sarah Grace Jones of the Urbana High School. The session closed with reports from delegates on work done. Each contained some hint or suggestion which the others might profitably accept.

The committee on resolutions passed a resolution thanking all individuals and organizations who had assisted in any way in their entertainment, also, thanking the president, and the press; one for aiding the movement to keep fraternities and sororities out of high schools; one to forward the work of Juvenile Courts;

one to secure better accommodations for the children in the state school at Lincoln, Ill.; one recommending better preparation for mother work as outlined by Elmer E. Brown, U. S. Commissioner of Education in the Independent of April 18th.

Altogether this was the most delightful session ever held by the Congress. The entertainment was royal in every way. Nothing occurred to mar the harmony of the sessions and much inspiration was received.

MRS. GEORGE ALFRED BROWN.

#### THE WORD COMMENDATORY.

The superintendent of schools of the capital of our nation writes us: "Your last issue of *SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION* (October) is one of the best numbers of any school magazine that I have read for years."

"We are grateful to our correspondent for his appreciation of the fact that a word of approval from those for whom the school journal is published, is a balm to the troubled soul to the publisher. The publication of a school journal that has convictions is, as yet, a labor of love in America. We are passing through a formative period in which every earnest worker is so actively engaged in the solution of his own problems that he does not think to send a word of cheer to his co-workers even if he listens to their words. It is not because he does not appreciate their efforts, but because it does not occur to him that a word from him would revive their courage. He who leads the local educational thought of his city is in closer touch with those whom he is trying to serve than is the publisher of an educational periodical. He does not, therefore, feel so lonesome. An editor is quite as human as other people. To know that his attempts to serve are approved by his co-laborers is an encouragement to persevere. Why should we wait until our comrades are dead before sending the hail of recognition down the line.

#### A DELIGHTFUL STORY.

Pasquale Moselette's *Career* is one of those pictures of real life which the art of a true story teller has given us in a way to touch the chords of our common human nature. Read it in this number of *SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION*. The author, Charles A. Myall, is a teacher with the soul as well as the skill of literary genius.

Teachers should not miss reading the two articles on spelling in this and the December numbers. They give a rational analysis of errors and helpful suggestions for teaching. In December, Miss Lampe begins her articles on teaching composition. They will be full of interest and of the life of helpful companion-

ship between teacher and pupils. We should like to hear from more of our readers with regard to what they like and what they don't like in the journal.

## BOOK TABLE

THE ART LITERATURE READERS, Book Three, by Francis Elizabeth Chutter, Atkinson, Mentzer and Grover, Chicago, Boston.

This is a book of material for reading, not an arrangement of lessons on reading. No attempt is made to make lessons of any of the selections. Conversations about the author and the selection before reading should enable the teacher to find what words may not be understood or can not be pronounced and the blackboard should be used in a study of these. This third book of the series gives selections from eight writers, such as Eugene Field, L. M. Alcott, Anderson, Carroll and Whittier. The illustrations are from Landseer and Gainsborough. All of the selections from an author are printed together in a section of the book. This is good practice as an emphasis on literature as well as of personalities. The children should feel toward a book that it is the author's expression of things of beauty or worth to the reader. When the collection includes several authors, each should be given a section. It is not expected, however, that the reading from day to day will follow this order.

McMASTER'S BRIEF HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. By John Bach McMaster, Professor of American History in the University of Pennsylvania. Half leather, 8vo, 464 pages, with maps and illustrations. Price, \$1.00. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

This is a new book by one of the leading authorities on United States History. The narrative is attractive and interesting, and provides a well-proportioned account of the chief events and figures. The book contains a summary at the end of each chapter, and references to collateral reading. Numerous footnotes include the biographies of prominent characters, and accounts of the less important events. The volume gives adequate attention to the colonial period, as well as to the social and industrial development of the country. It is noteworthy for the freshness and vigor of the style, its authoritative statements, and its historical and impartial treatment of every phase of our country's history. The numerous pictures are of a striking character and rare educative value. The maps are clear and well executed.

# SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

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DECEMBER, 1907

No. 4

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## EDUCATIONAL SURVEY.

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### ~~Idem~~ Teaching.

A recent visit to a Normal School has prompted the writer to write under this caption.

In the first place the conditions for teaching were ideal to all appearance. Beautiful building in a beautiful campus, with beautiful class-rooms and furniture of immaculate cleanliness, and a shine in the countenance and bearing of every one that betokened joy in the heart, made the environment seem as "rare as a day in June," and raised the expectation of the visitor on tip-toe. With such a welcome from the dumb host, what might not be expected from those who had created the host.

The first class visited was studying the mind, under the lead of a text, in a measure, the text serving more as a suggestion of the order of topics than of things to be learned. It was a freshman class composed of capable young women and young men, though the women far outnumbered the men. (May it not always be so.)

A name was called and the bearer began to talk. After that contribution had been made another was asked to contribute what she had discovered. The time came speedily for volunteers. This showed the result of the efforts of the class to solve the specific problem answered in part by the first student. It was manifest that the method

of study was by solution of certain problems discovered at the previous class-period by teacher and class together.

Any new light the teacher might wish to turn upon the question was discussed by the teacher and class in a similar way. In this manner the lesson for the day was disposed of and they proceeded to set for themselves problems for the next day.

(It should have been said at first that some member of the class presented, before the lesson of the day began, a summary of what had been previously considered in order that the lesson of the day might be articulated with what had gone before.)

The teacher was active but not as a giver of information other than suggestive queries after the class had exhausted its own. The minds of the class were on the *qui vive*. There was no indication of passive recipience by any one. There was no appearance of restraint, or fear lest one might have a wrong view of the matter. Each was seeking to make his own view clear, and received as much help from the class as from the teacher.

The class did the most of the talking and members spoke promptly and well, evidently realizing the value of time. The recitation gave evidence of general preparation, and they used what had gone before in the solution



of the problems in hand. The recitation was a period of exhilaration rather than fatigue, because the feelings of all were in accord with what was going on. No member of the class was indifferent to any failure he had made to properly apprehend the problem, but he was not disabled by chagrin or humiliation for the failure from getting from the recitation all he was prepared to receive. The mind of the class was in a constructive, creative attitude, where *will-as-desire* was pushing on to do what each could.

During this period there were many valuable things presented incidentally that illumined the matter in hand; of subordinate importance but necessary to fill out the picture. The point we make is that these were kept subordinate and so added clearness to the more important ideas in the lesson. The inferior was not made to rank in importance with the superior matter.

The recitation was practically ideal from the visitor's point of view. Its importance to the public was increased many times by its being carried on in a Normal School where persons are making ready to teach the children and youth of the state.

Who can estimate the value to the commonwealth of teachers possessed of the ideals and spirit and practice of such instruction? The difference between such a Normal School and one in which the teacher is a cold critic with a sharp tongue for those who do not hit the mark, is indeed vast. The latter kind of school sends out teachers who are apt to reproduce in their own schools what they experienced in the Normal School, and they justify their procedure by that experience. If

the Normal School teacher has not learned self-control and respect for the erring, the student finds no ground in his own preparation for any other practice than that practiced upon himself.

It is evident that in this Normal School no teacher would be permitted to retain a position who could not remember that he was a physician of souls rather than a Thersites, and that of all the virtues, heathen and christian, love has more power than all the rest.

There is something more to say later of this institution and the work done in it. It is not what it is because the most learned men and women, the greatest intellects, are the teachers, but because they manifest more of heart than is common. The spirit that prevails is will-as-desire to make the christian virtues of faith, hope, and love the controlling influences of the institution. The heathen virtues of justice, temperance, fortitude, and courage are admirable and should be taught, but they do not look beyond. It is essential that the teacher look beyond, else his vocation is the sorriest of trades.

#### **Schools for Apprentices.**

The Commissioner of Education recommends in the Report of 1906, that special provision be made for the training of teachers in agriculture and the other industrial arts. The need of teachers especially trained for this work is emphasized by the fact that states are legislating instruction in these arts into the public school systems of the land, and there are practically no teachers available who are competent to

meet the demands. The recommendation is that the great Universities each provide facilities and instructors for such teachers in order that the money appropriated for such instruction in high schools, Normal Schools, and colleges shall not be wasted through the inability of these schools to give instruction that shall be adequate. The Commissioner has the conviction that "We are on a rapidly rising wave of agricultural and industrial education," which is to be conducted at the expense of the general public. Adequate provision must be made for instructors, if we shall not fall between two stools.

Science departments were set up in our high schools before there were competent science teachers to fill the chairs. The mistake has been discovered and the science departments in the great Universities are now crowded with students. This expensive and disheartening experience in respect to scientific education suggests that it should not be repeated in the new endeavor to teach Agriculture and industrial Arts. Drawing was taught at public expense in the elementary and high schools for years before competent teachers of drawing could be found. That branch is suffering yet. Temperance physiology was legislated into the schools in most of the states, and books especially prepared were provided, but the schools were wanting in teachers who could interest the children in taking care of their bodies. There is no less effective teaching of any subject of the course today than that of "temperance physiology."

Our labor conditions are so changed from those of a generation ago that

apprentices are no longer taken into the shops to learn a trade, except in small numbers. Trades and the demand for skilled workmen are increasing. It is found that those who put brains into their trade are the most profitable to the employer.

It is now proposed to give specific instruction in the schools in "agriculture and the industries." A successful farmer who is only a farmer cannot teach agriculture, nor can the carpenter who is but a carpenter teach that vocation in a school; hence the need of teachers, and of teachers of teachers.

The imminent danger of all this multiplication of the mechanical sciences and the mechanic arts in the school curriculum, with the numerous teachers trained in mechanism, is that the schools will have an out-put of more animated machines than men.

The Commissioner recommends further, that compulsory attendance laws shall be enacted and enforced in all the states of the Union, and that children under the age limit of compulsory attendance laws shall not be employed as wage earners. Auxiliary to the attendance laws, legislation providing for the transportation of school children is recommended. It is also urged that the higher elementary and high schools shall give such thorough commercial and technical instruction as will hold the boys in school until they obtain as well-rounded an education as their development and capacity shall enable them to achieve.

The Commissioner further urges that the schools have their attention turned to the efforts that are being

made at the Hague conferences to promote the reign of universal peace among the nations of the earth; and to this end he recommends that on the 18th day of May in each year the schools celebrate by appropriate exercises the opening of the first Hague conference, which occurred in 1899. The schools should be led to urge an international peace that "makes for righteousness," which phrase seems a fuller description of the peace which the world should seek than is that felicitous phrase of President Roosevelt, "The Peace of Justice."

Certainly American Schools should have a deep interest in the current as well as the former history of the world and only by becoming familiar with this history can Americans learn their true place in it. The Educative Institution is to become the harmonizing institution of the world by fostering the sentiment of the brotherhood of man. If men are brothers it is because they have a common Father.

#### The Educative Institution.

##### II.

The first human institution was social. Community life existed before even family life began. The gregariousness of animals was the prophesy of the community life of man. The instinct of self-preservation has stimulated gregariousness in animals of the same species. It was the primal cause of community life among men.

The laws of society in the beginning were few, and their boundaries not well defined. They were none the less laws that no one was conscious of them. Instinct felt what was disastrous to the whole, and all instinc-

tively combined to resist it when they could not shun it.

But as man developed toward self-consciousness, the social institution began, also, to wake to consciousness. From combination of the whole to prevent the destruction of the whole, there would grow the combination of the whole to protect the individual against an alien enemy, and later against a stronger member of the group; for the reason that destruction of individuals weakened the group. These reasons were not in consciousness perhaps, but men acted that way—more by impulse than by intention.

From such low beginning the social institution sprung.

Institutions have grown toward self-consciousness very slowly. Fear, as suggested, was a powerful influence in forming the social-group for protection against common enemies, and it has been an even more powerful influence in retarding institutional self-consciousness in later generations.

As man's self-consciousness emerged, his God-consciousness came out with it. The social institution was the product of both the God-consciousness and the self-consciousness. The God-consciousness became dominant because of the ascendance of the creator over the creature. For ages the gods walked with men, as is made manifest in the Iliad and Odyssey of Homer, the Bible of the Greeks.

The gods took the form at times of the nation's great men, and spoke through them to the people. Thus inspired men came to be recognized as the messengers of the gods, and the mass became dominated by their leaders through fear of giving offense to

ods. The *will-as-desire* for freedom was thus arrested in the mass-consciousness, and the emergence of self-consciousness of the social motion carried. It is scarce three hundred years since the most aspiring strongest people of the human race began seriously to question the interference of God in the affairs of men, and to question the aims of men to speak by divine authority. It has been within the lifetime of the older generation now living that God's method of creating and teaching men has been revealed and been labeled *evolution*. Only a small fraction of the population of the world has ever heard of evolution, and only a fraction of that fraction understand it well enough to believe it. It is before this new method of creation was discovered, many persons, especially of the Teutonic race, had held that the self-consciousness of man and the God-consciousness as interpreted by authority, were not entirely in accord to justify the continuance of their union in the same institution. When America ordered as a nation, one of her founding principles was the separation of church and state, and the independence of each in the field of its activity. From this there has come to be two forms of government, and two different goals to be attained by these two independent institutions. From this comes the conviction which has not yet outgrown, that the religious life is one thing, and the secular life is another, and, in the thought of many, appear to be opposed. We are sometimes told that there is an impassable gulf between them. The senti-

ment prevails among the less thoughtful that one may be pious in his religious life and be a great sinner in his secular life. The diremption of the social order into two distinct and independent institutions would naturally lead to the practice, and later perhaps to the conviction, that the religious life and the secular life have little in common.

This simple narrative is introduced here to refresh the mind of the reader who has made some study of the history of civilization. It is preparatory to a further consideration of the relations of the people as state to the people as church in our social order, and finally of the relations of the educative institution to both.

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**Know  
Thyself.**

To teach is to stimulate the learner to learn. In this sense everything animate and inanimate which commands the attention is a teacher. Anything and everything that stimulates the young child to learn, we name the environment. This includes those influences which are objective to the learner. The elementary school provides a selected environment that tends to influence the learner in a specific way in order to attain a certain end. The child learns through its own self-activity; unconsciously at first, and later by voluntary effort. The child's nervous system is his most influential environment. The attacks made upon the sensory nerves by the physical environment cause a re-action which influences the nerve cell, which in turn transmits the influence to the efferent nerves which move the body. The

self or personality of the child is stimulated chiefly or wholly, in the beginning, by movements in these sensori-motor cycles caused by movements other than those of the personality. The chief instrument which the teacher—whether home or school—employs to arouse the conscious self-activity of the child is the sensori-motor cycle.

Later in the development of self-activity, psychic cycles begin to establish themselves; for example, self-consciousness. He makes judgments long before he discovers what is involved in the making of a judgment. He uses the form of the psychic cycle in bringing into unity objects which he looks upon as other than himself. Whenever he makes a statement he affirms or denies the unity of subject and predicate.

When the personality comes to the consciousness of himself, when he can set himself over against himself and say that "I am I"—that he, the

thinker, is he, the object—then he has entered upon the road that leads to knowledge of himself. It is then that the meaning of the Delphic Oracle—"Know thyself" begins to dawn upon him.

When one arrives at this stage of power, he is no longer dependent upon his sensori-motor cycle for his objects. He begins to apprehend all objects as objects of consciousness and that to know one's self is to know the universal. He now sees that the psychic cycle is the method of creation. To know one's self is to project himself as predicate and at the same time affirm the predicate to be the subject. Every increment of knowledge, or power, or love, results in a consciousness of a richer predicate which is at the same time the subject. To know one's self is to know every potentiality of the self actualized, made active in the subject that knows. It is, therefore, a process of infinite duration.

## A PSYCHO-PHYSIOLOGICAL OUTLINE.

GEO. P. BROWN.

The following is an exhibition of some of the bones of a skeleton suggesting the process by which the Psyche, or Personality, develops through its self-activity.

Man is a machine plus an ego, or personality.

The machine is the product of evolution from the beginning until the personality emerged.

The ego uses the machine for his own development. The chimpanzee is the highest evolution of the machine, and the immediate herald of the coming of man. He is man's habitation swept and garnished in preparation for its coming master.

The gorilla has a vague consciousness of his environment as object to himself who is subject.

The infant ego before it is eighteen months old is conscious of his environment as object;—has separated the self from the not self; the knower from the thing known.

The child is *will-as-desire* at the beginning of consciousness; he has also the congenital endowments of the highest life of the lower world from which he has emerged.

He is *potentially* one with God—the image of his Creator. The school seeks to forward that potentiality toward realization.

The child through the elementary and the high school conceives the subject and object,—the learner and the matter to be learned—as things essen-

tially different. The teacher, for the most part, takes the same view. The latter seeks to lead the child to know the object, the matter set forth in the course of study. He is led into a knowledge of this matter by, first, vaguely conceiving it as a whole composed of parts mutually related; second, by analyzing these separate parts in their constituent elements; and third, by reconstructing these parts each into an organized whole and reuniting these separate wholes into one body of organized knowledge. The process and the result are viewed as something objective and other than the self that knows.

The process of the schools is diverse, but has a unifying strand of which the teaching body is but vaguely aware. This strand is not yet a guiding principle of education.

The child at the beginning of conscious life is will as desire in so far as it is other than chimpanzee; it is chimpanzee plus will-as-desire. This feeling-will is the native force which drives on the mature man, as well as the child, in most of his initial acts. It is the point of contact between the thing to be done and the doer in the positive, affirmative educative processes of the young. Inhibitory acts are educative when they negate the negative acts—negatively educative.

HOW DOES EGO EDUCATE ITSELF.

The Feeling-Will, the ego or self, as

a child creates language as the instrument for its own development. To create the language it makes use of the mechanism contributed by evolution, which mechanism is the left lobe of the brain in all right-handed children, or the right lobe in all left-handed children. What the child inherits is what his animal ancestors had accumulated. These are the inheritance to which he is born. But he has a new endowment—that of personality. This personality can come to its own only by the help of words, of language. Its natural endowment is feeling-will—i. e. will as desire which is a creative power. Personality is not endowed with language ready made. That it must create. The race is not yet old enough for the individual to possess a single word by inheritance, if such inheritance shall ever come.

Man brings up from below a prophesy of feeling-will and mentality—the gorilla is perhaps the highest type of such attainments in the lower world. The distinguishing mark of personality is that it can know itself. It can look at itself and think "It is I." Personality is not fully born with the child. The child is conscious before it is self-conscious. When he can set himself over against himself and recognize the object thus set off as himself, then he has entered upon the first stage of self-consciousness. He has become a person. Up to this time all objects are known as not self. He now sees himself as object. In philosophic terms he knows himself as subject-object.

The highest stage of self-conscious personality is when one discovers that all this objective world, this not self

which is to him so interesting which he is so irresistibly impelled to, is himself in the many phases of his consciousness. In some stage of one's evolution he understands that the great purpose of life is to know one's self:—to become self to the fullest limit of his creative power.

From this ultimate point of view it appears clear that the increasing purpose of one's education is to know that is, to become conscious of himself as the re-creator, and original creator of his world.

Will as desire is a self-active energy which seeks to realize itself in the thing desired. This impulse is a fundamental form in psychic growth corresponding to the form of physical growth in which the afferent nerve responds to the stimulus and carries suggestion to the central cell and the cell transmits it to the efferent nerve through which the stimulus becomes effective in the organism. Everywhere in the body there is but one cycle of activity—Afferent-efferent—repeating itself in thousands of ways in building the body.

So everywhere in psychic life feeling-will is the psychic dynamo which radiates those streams of consciousness which together make the actor.

If this be true then education scientific must conform itself to the psycho-motor cycle, just as in the education of the body all efforts must conform to the formula of the psycho-motor cycle for valuable results.

The problem for the school is to lead the feeling-will to desire and will build up the personality to

manhood rather than that which will make man merely an intelligent beast.

The natural impulse of the personality is toward manhood. That is the goal education seeks. But the child brings with him from below the instincts and passions of the beast. When his education stimulates these

then the divine impulse, the personality is arrested, and some characteristic of the beast becomes the motive of the feeling-will. The growing child is the field of constant battle between the animal and the moral; the inheritance and the reason.

### THE RATIONALE OF SPELLING.

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(Continued from November Number.)

I now desire to touch a galaxy of errors which cannot be classified under either of the headings, ear-mindedness or eye-mindedness. At first sight they seem to be matters of invention. Some of them are rather interesting.

First, note that peculiarity among children of putting in letters that have no force in the sound of the word. *Minent* and *minth*, for minute; *jernary* for journey; *midt* for met; *pasend* and *pasted* for passed, *crepting* for creeping; *leanding* for leading; *satisfided* for satisfied.

What do these mean? I have gone over several of these errors thoughtfully. I cannot say that I can offer anything conclusive, but two or three suggestions seem to arise from the consideration.

First. The trouble may be that the child is of foreign birth or parentage. For instance, final *th* means *t* to a German. If you know the pupil to be foreign, you may have the key.

Second. In not a few cases where the pupil was uncertain about a word, while he was thinking he found himself compelled to hurry on because the teacher was dictating a new sentence. Some prominent sound or letter in the word, as *r* in journey, *n* in leading, dominated and went down on the paper because the faculties were not acting normally, *e. g.,* *elése* for else. Sometimes a sound or letter belonging to another word in the sentence was dominant, and introduced itself into the word being written.



Third. I find the process of association very active in writing. In the instances given, note *crepting*, *leanding* and *minth*. Think of the actual words crept, lend and month. I do not say that these words were in the child's mind, but I have a little evidence to show that they might have been. The investigation offers a number of instances in which other good English words were actually used for those dictated, the new words making no sense whatever, and yet leaving me entirely sure that the new word had taken the place of the old one. Take a few illustrations. Wrecked was spelled *wreathed* and *wretched*. This is not a case of misspelling. It is an actual intrusion of a new word in the place of the word dictated. Now, when *minth* was written for minute, might not month have intruded itself in the same way? To give other illustrations: Were was spelled *where* and *was*, and *make* was used for made. In many other cases, while the intrusion is not so clearly indicated, there is room to suppose that there was such an intrusion. In such cases, at least, we cannot be sure that the child did not know how to spell the word, as when he spelled *farther* for father. I think in this case, that he knew how to spell father, but the word farther got into his mind. Children run off on tangents very easily, and many so-called errors in spelling are tangential errors.

Fourth. Certain letters tend to intrude themselves with certain children. T is a very intrusive letter. Why do people say *oncet*? I have on my list *pasted* for passed, *wonderestly* for wondrously and *leiting* for leading. I knew a little girl who invariably put in an n after say, as: "What was he sayning?" and "I was playning." I think these may be called idiosyncrasies, and should be treated as such. Similar considerations apply to the substitution of letters, as when *mourted* was written for mounted.

I pause here to direct your attention as forcibly as I may to this fact applying to the present section of this discussion. It is its practical outcome. Such errors as we are now considering are not errors in spelling at all; that is to say, they do not indicate that the child doesn't know. They arise from haste or the domination of an associated idea. The teacher should not correct such errors, but should permit the child to discover them himself by reading over his paper several times, until he finds them; much less should the pupil lose marks for them. It is unjust to say the boy does not know how to spell when he has written *mourted*.

Give him a chance to correct his own paper and see if this is not so.

But how few teachers seem to know this. There is only one fact in their minds when they correct a spelling paper, and that is that the word was spelled wrong. Let me enforce the lesson I am now trying to teach by the consideration of a few more errors, kindred to those just considered, to which the practical statements I have just made apply with equal force.

There is a tendency on the part of children to leave out letters. I have many illustrations in my table of errors. We are so familiar with this in our own writing that we should not be surprised. In our case it is not because we don't know, nor is it necessarily so in the child's case. It is the result of other causes; some of which have been referred to, which affect the manual act of writing. Here again, the child should be permitted to find his own error, and should not be treated as if he did not know his lesson. The same argument and suggestion should be made again in cases in which a child has inverted letters, as *juryony* for journey.

So also must we regard the substitution of the singular for the plural; as ship for ships, or the opposite; the putting in of another part of the verb, as send for sending; the use of one word for another, as then for them, the for they, though for thought. They are not errors in spelling; or they may not be; at least the pupil ought to have the same privilege that we enjoy in our correspondence, that of reading it over to himself one or more times.

Permit me, for a moment only, to call your attention to a class of very peculiar, but interesting errors which deserve a similar treatment. I refer to those cases in which the word isn't spelled at all. Take these spellings for journey: *jer, ji, jou*. Now, maybe the child did not have time for consideration, was nervous. The state of mind may be similar to that already described, in which I have tried to show why a boy put in an extra letter. Here again the child should be permitted to correct his own errors by reading over his own paper. It is not permitted to infer from this kind of error that the child doesn't know.

It is time for me to sum up. The charge is made against some child-study investigations that they traverse a great area to discover what we knew before. Maybe that is the case in the present investigation. Whether it is or not, I am certain of this, that the inferences to which I have been inviting your attention represent principles, which are every

day violated by thousands of teachers. I desire in concluding this paper, therefore, to bunch my inferences and show how they collide with established custom.

First. I call attention to the broad inference from this investigation, that the criticism of spelling should be analytical. Errors in spelling differ in kind, and they differ as to their origin, and they demand varying treatment. But, in practice, there is no analysis in the treatment of spelling. The teacher recognizes the fact that seven words out of the fifty are wrong, and she recognizes no other fact. But the seven errors may each require special treatment. It has been shown that some errors are not errors in spelling at all. They are errors of nervousness, mental tricks, or merely errors of writing, as when a boy spelled journey for journey. Furthermore, the pupil should be permitted to discover his own errors in many cases. Such errors as he can discover should not be marked for him. Again, the error may be in the percept of the sound of the word, or it may be the sound and a certain spelling are so closely associated that hard knocks are necessary to break the connection; or the child may be in error as to the phonetic force of certain letters and combinations of letters; or he may have idiosyncrasies regarding spelling which require individual treatment; or, finally, the eye may be at fault.

Of course, all this means fewer dictation exercises and more detailed and analytical consideration of such exercises. The present plan of many exercises and a superficial correction, evidently does little good. I think it may be shown that it even strengthens certain wrong tendencies.

Second. The importance of a larger amount of oral work in spelling ought to be apparent; for, by far the larger portion of the errors arise from false percepts derived through sound. I have already called attention to the probability of there existing subconsciously in the child's mind a visual percept, which is the translation of the child's aural percept of a word. Note carefully, that this relation, between the false percept and the sound is probably individual and is intimate beyond belief. It takes a convulsion to separate them. The sound journey and the spelling *jernie* have been friends a good while. Do you think that one friend is going to abandon another just because you introduce a new one, a little prettier? By no means. We make our bow to *journey*: "Happy to know you; be pleased to meet you again," and we go traveling off with *jernie* just the same. You *must* utterly destroy the connection before you can establish

a new one. This means a running fight with the false percept, not one fight but many; and this means much oral work, covering, mark you, a limited area. It also means the correction of the error the instant it shows itself. It will not do to wait. Here again, ample oral drill is demanded. The dictation exercise is important, but only as a test of the success of your oral drill. Of course I am here referring only to sound errors.

Third. We are not to forget that the ultimate purpose in the teaching of spelling is that the pupil shall write correctly; not in columns but in paragraphs. The oral drill and the column work must be considered not as ends in themselves, but in view of practical writing. Teachers are perfectly familiar with the fact that pupils will write the column lesson much better than the dictation lesson. But success in the latter is the only true success and must, of course, be made the standard of attainment. The word drill and the column drill must be manipulated for the most part to prepare for the paragraph work or to correct the errors found therein.

Fourth. Note the great preponderance indicated in this investigation of what I have called sound errors and note also that these errors have to do almost exclusively with familiar words; *i. e.* with the child's own vocabulary. This means that if we can extirpate such errors, we have largely cleared up the child's bad spelling. Why not do this? Why go on endeavoring to teach a new vocabulary and leave this mass of inaccuracy behind us? I submit that such a course of procedure is in the highest degree illogical. Yet it is the course followed by most teachers. I have already touched on this subject, but lay special emphasis on it at this point with a view of making a practical suggestion or two. Any observant teacher can within a year make a list of words which are actually used by her pupils and to a greater or less extent, used incorrectly. This is her most valuable spelling book. I don't mean that no other spelling books may be used, but their use must be subordinate and not to teach spelling, mark you, but to increase the vocabulary.

But regarding the increase of the child's vocabulary, a word of caution is necessary. Few of us realize how very small is the possible daily or weekly increase in the child's knowledge in any line. This is especially true with regard to language. No child can add to his vocabulary one-tenth the number of new words many teachers put in a spelling lesson. Two, three, or at the most five is a large daily in-

crement. Try it yourself in the learning of a new language; German, for instance. If this be true the necessity for any large use of the spelling book disappears and the drill falls back on the child's own vocabulary. When teachers grasp these two correlated essentials, first, drill on the child's own vocabulary, second, very small daily increment to that vocabulary, accuracy in spelling will result. In other words, when we stop trying to do so much we shall succeed in doing more.

I add a suggestion which is a logical corollary to what I have already offered. The increase in the child's vocabulary must be for use in that vocabulary and subject to subsequent drill. Therefore, the words must be easy. This principle is violated by most courses of study and therefore by most teachers. The child who reads in a third reader uses a vocabulary on the grade of a first or second reader. The fourth reader pupils' own vocabulary is scarcely above that of the second reader. Here is the indication for the spelling lesson so far as the new words are concerned. The words given out in our spelling lessons are far too difficult.

Fifth. I claim that children should correct most of their own errors. Not only so, but they should find many of them without any help from the teacher. The blue pencil is used far too much. It is necessary, however, to note that the pupils probably will not be able to find the sound errors at first. *Jernie* will not arrest the child's attention. It looks perfectly natural. *Foring* for foreign will arrest his attention, for he is not sure about foreign, and he will consult the dictionary. But he is sure about *jernie* and passes on. When *jernie* does arrest his attention, then you have broken the association.

Let the child do all he can for himself before you interfere. Then apply your skill on the residual errors and apply your skill skilfully.

Sixth. Finally, I call your attention to the moral phase of the problem. The right of children to help themselves, just discussed, is indeed a moral consideration, but there is another and a very serious one. You remember my claim that many errors are not spelling errors. They don't mean that the child can't spell the word. They mean that he was nervous, or, as I have said before, his mind played him a trick, or else he needed time for consideration. Now, when you mark ten words wrong, and six errors are of this character, you are unjust as well as unwise, for there are also errors which are of pure carelessness, or which indicate wil-

ful lack of study. In one set of cases the child has not tried and in the other he has tried. By your process you make no distinctions. You hold the child up for unpleasant criticisms and make unjust comparisons. Perhaps the child indicates no sense of injustice, but try the role of justice and see how quickly he responds. "Some of you were hurried and wrote words you didn't mean to write. Now, look over your papers and I know you can correct many errors. I don't want to take any advantage of you." Right gladly the normally-constituted child hands in his improved paper. Now, you can say, "You have only two errors," and that is more stimulating than to say, "You had eight errors." Try this plan for a few weeks and then go back to the old way and see if the child is not conscious of injustice. The only reason he wasn't conscious before, was, that he did not know that there was any other way. It pays to be just, even in spelling.

But this moral question has one other phase. I am very fond of Froebel's claim that there is no true education where the child is not made conscious of power. And Froebel distinctly means power. He is to be made conscious of power; he is not to be made conscious of failure. What does the teacher generally do? She emphasizes failure. It is a mistake. Emphasize success, emphasize power. By recognizing the child's ability to correct many of his errors, we emphasize power. By holding up a long list of errors we discourage him; or, putting it more forcibly, we evolve consciousness of defeat. Give the child a chance and then say, "Well done, you had only one error today and I can see how you made that, and I know you won't make it again after you understand it," etc. Take my word for it, there is always a response to this kind of treatment. Don't be so fond of the blue pencil, or, if you must use it, use it to mark the words written correctly and then the blue will be on the paper and not in the child.

In conclusion, let me note that the inferences in this paper are of three kinds. First, those which seem to be reasonably grounded, and point clearly to certain methods of teaching. Second, those which carry with them a strong probability, strong enough to furnish a basis of experimental action; third, inferences merely indicated, but indicated with sufficient clearness to warrant further investigation. As I have already stated, I am only too well aware of the limitations of my investigation. I trust I may be able to continue it. I hope that some of my readers will.

## WHY NEED ENGLISH COMPOSITION BE A BUGBEAR?

MARGARET H. J. LAMPE.

## I.

In the preceding articles I have tried to show that the mental stage and personal needs of the child rather than an ideal list of "what every educated person must have read" should determine the choice of reading matter for use in school.

In like manner, more satisfactory results in writing would be obtained if the teacher studied the child more than the rhetorical treatises on "How to Teach Composition" or such little manuals as one entitled "1000 Choice Subjects for Essays." In themselves those thousand subjects are for the most part interesting and apparently wide enough in range to suit any taste. Almost any group of teachers examining them will say that pupils of ordinary intelligence ought to be able to write acceptable essays on such bright, simple, attractive subjects. But alas! only the few "natural writers" in the class do hand in readable themes while the rest continue to exhibit such persistent "hatred" towards composition as to make the correction of essays a cause of premature gray hairs to the teacher of English.

"But," says someone, "you are behind the times. No *progressive* instructor now-a-days teaches (?) composition by merely assigning subjects and then criticising results. She develops in class what is to be expressed next day in writing." Ah yes. . . . to be sure.—The old-fashioned teacher asks the pupil to write original thoughts on

subjects about which he has non the up-to-date instructor more skillfully and, if possible, ind puts into him new ideas to be re forthwith in all their pristine ness on paper. Neither induce child to express *himself* and both him firmly convinced that he h thought of his own worth expre and with a permanently estab habit of seeking in books both rial and modes of expression for productions. Right here let m how many grown people write a of any sort without going to t brary to "read up on it first?" or ing read, lay aside books entirely writing?

But here is a highly trained te of English who bases the work ( tual observations made by the dren and (apparently) avoids altogether. Her work usually s visitors as both charming in its and pedagogically sound. Let u into her room and judge wheth latter is true. She has determin awaken in those prosaic young an appreciation of the beaut Springtime. So she carefully p out of them statements of what see and hear from the windows 1 general effect that the sky is blu grass is green and the sparrows By dint of judicious effort and i uity in questioning the bald state are modified to make the sky "a pale blue flecked with light,

clouds;" the grass becomes "a tender vivid green" and the birds "warble cheerily as they hop from bough to bough preparing to build nests where soon," etc., etc.

Next an attempt is made to stimulate imagination by inquiry as to what the blueness of the sky and the whiteness of the clouds suggest. After a hopeless pause during which a blue dress and a blue ribbon have been dismissed as unworthy objects of comparison, and blue flowers of various kinds vigorously criticised by matter-of-fact boys and girls as being far from the right shade, Tom mischievously suggests that the only thing just that color he ever did see was a tub of water in which clothes had just been blued and if anybody wanted to be "real poetic" the curdled soap on top might be compared to the clouds. The look of pain on the teacher's face is speedily replaced by a gratified smile when Marie asks "Isn't there some sort of a precious stone just that color? I don't know the name and I've never seen it but its spoken of somewhere in the Bible or maybe in some hymn or poem." No one in the class has seen a sapphire but the girls at least being given the word, glibly form an acceptable simile; and having gained a good hint from Marie as to how to borrow comparisons from chance phrases lingering in memory (which is so much easier than originating them), delight their teacher by likening the clouds to downy feathers from a mother bird's breast, innocence, purity, snow, etc. In short, next day the class hand in readable essays on "Sights and Sounds from my Window," "A Morning Walk" and "An

Ideal Spring Day." The first two or three convince the teacher that she has succeeded in awakening a real love for nature in her pupils, but by the time she has read the twenty-seventh original combination of the identical nineteen choice poetic phrases and soulful comparisons she had "developed" in class the day before, she unconsciously sighs as she records another 92 in her grade book while she remarks to me "They do certainly write smoothly but seem to have no originality, and yet I spend so much time in developing the thought before they write. I don't understand it."

Last she looks over the compositions of two boys who always try her to the utmost. Tom has treated his theme throughout in the spirit of his inelegant "wash-tub comparison." Indeed, Miss W's annoyance at this is chiefly caused by her suspicion that the horrid boy is constantly making fun not only of everything sublime in literature but also of her and her teaching; yet he does it so, skillfully and with such apparent innocence that she never feels quite sure enough to charge him with the offense.

Arthur's essay is equally aggravating to her though in a very different way. What he saw from the window was that things were growing fast, there was no rain in sight, Mr. Smith's house opposite needed painting worse than ever and if he didn't fix his fence pretty soon his colt would break out; there were seven sparrows, three robins and a cat-bird in sight. He didn't see anything beautiful in the scene but likely that was partly because he wasn't a girl and the window was so dirty.



A frown and a grade of 60 rewarded Arthur's effort. Miss W. resolved to try next themes from Literature (by which she meant paraphrases) since her pupils so evidently had no thoughts of their own.

Yet it was this same stupid Arthur who gave me my first important lesson on how to get good work in English composition from pupils.

The boys of the second year English class had long been very unruly. Finally I stated that any one sent out of class again by Miss W. for bad behavior would have to recite English to me every night after school for a week and that, if that did not prove effective, he would be suspended from Miss W's class for a month during which I would give him similar special private lessons in good behavior and English between the hours of 4:30 and 5:30 p. m. This was a piece of deliberate cruelty on my part as the baseball season had just opened and field day was not far off, so naturally every boy was more than anxious to leave the school house at one minute past four o'clock every day.

My threat improved the general discipline in Miss W's class for a whole week but finally, as often before, Arthur was sent to me, this time for groaning and falling off the end of the seat just at the most touching point in a classic poem Miss W. was reading aloud. Of course, Arthur was injured innocence. Miss W. had refused to believe that the other boys had pushed him off. She never did believe *him*. She accepted Tom's excuse that he didn't mean to send him clear on to the

floor but just to jog him so as to get him up because he was beginning to snore and so was in danger of losing the effect of that lovely poem. Of course she swallowed all that.

Arthur admitted that in reply to some personal remarks of the teacher she told her it was all her fault for doing things so tame as to put him to sleep whereupon he had been summarily dismissed from the class. "You knew it was impudent and he ought to have said it, but it was *true*."

He took my sharp reproof with a coming meekness and sat there watching the clock from four to five while the other boys, as he knew, were practicing athletics and he had to wait until my other duties were over as possible for me to hear his English lesson. In a half-hour's discussion of a passage from Lowell it became evident to me that the boy was intelligent and not so entirely without literary appreciation as Miss W. thought. Arthur was not a member of any other classes and I had no information of his qualities beyond her statement he was hopelessly stupid, lazy, bored, and, worst of all, unwilling to improve in any way. "I might as well give poetry to a pig" said she. "I don't believe that boy is much above the animals. He won't take any interest in higher things. You ought to mark the essays he writes—when he tries at all—just half a dozen bare fragments of unrelated fact—perfectly worthless—and I believe he is a

[That a great surprise was in store for Miss W. will be shown in the next number.]



## Within the School-Room.

A Department of Observation and Reports of Classwork and School Management Conducted by George Alfred Brown.



### Course of Study.

#### IV.

##### *The Basis of Culture Epochs.*

This discussion of the course of study is an attempt to follow the unfolding of the mind of the child under the action of the native powers of human life. The position taken in these articles with reference to many of the questions now before teachers rests on certain principles and definitions, and these are emphasized in the hope that they will give a wider meaning to the particular facts of child life in the school, and will help to extend the opportunity for organized thinking with regard to all of the teacher's work. Many of the facts on which the principles must depend for their validity have been presented in various ways in the columns of this journal, in connection with discussions, reports of class room work, and in the stories of school life. In this issue, Miss Wray discusses some of the aspects of imagination, Miss Fletcher in her story illustrates a condition, and Miss Lampe and others add emphasis to the deductions that follow from a study of what these experiences mean for education.

One of the first facts that must be considered in an attempt to understand the unfolding of the child's mind is imagination. Does this grow out of impulsive actions made at first instinctively and blindly in trying to overcome obstacles? Such an assumption would lead to the formulation of

a principle of education based on motor impulses and instinct. But this question may take form in a way to emphasize a different nature in human life. It would then ask if imagination is not a direct product of powers native to the personality; powers of appreciation, of sympathy, and of aspiration, which must be possessed by the soul in order that it may give meaning to experience. These are the powers which enable the personality to organize percepts and establish the inner life of mental activity. Psychologists distinguish between brain activity and mind activity by the presence of the inner life of consciousness. Under brain activity alone bodily motions take place without any percepts appearing in consciousness, but through direct connection with the sensation involved. When life is brought under the direction of mental activity, however, the instinctive or habitual motor reaction of the brain is inhibited, perception takes place, consciousness considers the meaning of the involved sensations, and bodily movement is directed by a more or less fully organized purpose.

Psychologists who put the question before us in the form given first consider that the function of the mind is the same as the function of the brain. (See James' "Talks to Teachers on Psychology"), namely, the self preservation of the individual. So considered, human psychology becomes but a more complex form of animal

psychology, and evolution is thought of as a materialistic and mechanical process of adjustment. On the other hand, rational psychologists and theistic evolutionists consider that the function of the mind is fundamentally different from the function of the brain because, from its first appearance, it supplies the means of directing life for very different purposes from those possible to brain directed action alone. The animal lacking the means for self-consciousness can not extend its field of life beyond immediate reactions except as, by repetition, habits of brain action are fixed and organic functions established as instincts. The human being, on the other hand, is such because of his personality, that is of his consciousness of desires and interests, of sympathies, and of purposes that direct action from within, and for the ends set up by the personality. Human life, therefore, acts in its peculiar function when it gives consideration to personal relations of the self to its own nature, to others, or to God. When the mind functions in this way the values which the soul attaches to action have control, and the needs and the mere comforts or pains of the physical organism are considered are those of a servant. The determination of these values for the inner and spiritual life under the conditions given by experience and opportunity is, in this view, the work which the mind must be organized to do. However, it must also assume a large part of the function, which in the animal belongs to the brain, or preserving the physical organism, since the life of body and soul are one existence.

The principles governing the of the teacher and his attitude to the activities of the child's mind quite different when examined the one or the other of those conditions of the function of the mind the mind has the same function that of the brain except that it meet and organize life under complex situations, then the must be developed through a training in industrial and economic life. Teachers who hold this view have children "gather acorns, roots and row leaf, and of water lily, tips of tails, stems of reeds, etc.—and pare them for eating as nearly as possible as the Indians did." They them construct the environment tree and cave dwellers and imagine life as clearly as possible, and find this with the life of hunting, her primitive agriculture, paternal feudal society, pioneer life, etc. insist that the best material for teaching should be vivid descriptions which would make the details of industrial and economic life stand out in children's minds.

If, however, the function of mind is to promote fellowship, the appreciations, the sympathies, the aspirations of the person within, of other personalities, and God, then the child must be developed through a nourishment of imagination a building up of a mental power adequate to the work of determining and values for life under present individual conditions, and a cultivation of power to do the will of his higher and most universal self.

The teacher in attempting to accomplish such a result must u

stand that the child begins life as an animal, though possessing an undeveloped personality. Each step in the process of his development for every individual is an evolution. The mind grows through successive new and wider concepts or views of life. There are new births we say, at each one of which a being distinctly different from its former self in important regards emerges. It is these stages of growth that constitute the child's culture epochs. Several of these undoubtedly occur before the child learns to talk. The first smile marks one, perhaps, but the use of language, as was pointed out last month with regard to Helen Keller, marks the beginning of a very important epoch because it gives the power to control action and thought, in the self and in others, so as to bring about a common life.

The next important epoch, perhaps, begins with the activity of the imagination as a distinct element in mental life. When the child is first able to image himself as living under conditions different from the actual, or to image the life of others in its mental content of feeling and appreciations, a new view of life has opened to him. It is this power that enables him to follow and enjoy a story. The question of how best to develop this power is an important one to the teacher. The end to be sought is power to image truly the soul content of the life of others, or of himself in other conditions. But in the beginning of this development only single elements or separate qualities of life can be followed. The process must be as detailed as that of learning to talk or to

read, and is in fact a part of each of those processes. The relation of the imaginative content in the language and reading work to the growth of the mind is a subject large enough for a separate article and will be taken up next month.

#### Language Lessons in Primary Grades.

Editorial Note.—This is the first of several articles on this subject contributed by Miss Angelina W. Wray, of New Brunswick, N. J. Miss Wray is well known to most of our readers for her "Glimpses of Child Nature" and other articles that have appeared in our columns and as the author of Jean Mitchell's School.

There is one land to which entrance is never denied and from which no traveler is ever turned away. The king and the beggar alike may wander over its hills and down its valleys, for the country is the broad realm of imagination. For some it holds shining visions of splendor, for others a peace as calm and untroubled as that which broods over the sea when the summer sun has set and the summer night broods over the waves, while for still others it is dark with mysterious phantoms or evil fancies.

It is a world whose influence over daily life is stronger than we are sometimes willing to acknowledge. Solomon said, "As a man thinketh in his heart, so is he," and the wisdom of the assertion is becoming more and more apparent. No one can have pure noble thoughts without feeling their effect on character and action, while wicked and debasing thoughts drag their thinker down to their own level.

But, someone asks, what has all this to do with language teaching in the classroom. The connection is close.

What is language? Is it not the expression of thought, in words? Before we can expect expression, then, we must have thought, and the teacher who, next to the parent, molds the imagination of the child, has a deep responsibility in the matter.

If we had but fifty dollars in a bank we should never think of trying to draw out five hundred, yet all over the school-world we may find teachers who are industriously trying to draw out of children's minds ideas that are not there, striving to achieve results that will never be achieved until a different procedure is adopted.

Not long ago a teacher showed me a set of thirty papers that had been laboriously prepared by her class. At the top of each a daisy had been drawn and prettily colored. Below appeared the following statements:

"This is a daisy. The daisy is white. The daisy has a yellow center. The daisy has green leaves. The daisy has a green stem. The daisy has brown roots."

"When I've read one of them I've read them all," she said. "And they wouldn't have written even that much if I hadn't put questions on the board for them to answer. I take so much pains with their language work, too. Every day I bring a new specimen for them to describe, and try hard to get them interested. I can't see why I don't get some really pretty thoughts instead of those bald statements."

All unconsciously she had explained her difficulty. The papers before her were the legitimate product of language work. It was work for the pupils and work for the teacher. As for the really pretty thoughts, the children did

not have them, so how *could* they express them?

Many, many times I have seen children sitting at their desks which a pansy, violet, or other flower had been placed, looking listless at the specimen, and wearily trying to write something about it. Just as if language to teacher and pupil means thirty minutes with pen tightly clutched and an expressive misery on the face, just that long the results be the same. Language should be spontaneous. It should be the natural outgrowth of thought, if thought is missing it is absurd to expect expression. The easiest, the most effective way to accomplish the best results is to take the children through the gates of story land. Few persons doubt this fact, yet few stories in the classroom. The reasons for this are various. Some teachers assert that they lack confidence in themselves and are at a loss when they stand before the class, for the stories carefully prepared has slipped from their mind. Others say that they do not find stories suitable for little children and become discouraged in search while still others declare that their pupils take no interest in stories.

The last excuse is ridiculous because all children are eager for stories. If one contains even a grain of interest they seize upon it with avidity. At the first excuse, any embarrassment may be relieved if we remember that the children are desirous of hearing what we have to tell and rarely do so of criticising its delivery, while nervousness and timidity will certainly

disappear if we persist in doing our best.

There remains, then, only the question of what stories are suitable and the problem of finding them. Several things must be borne in mind in their selection. The stories must be of interest to the childish mind, they must contain life and action, and should not be too long.

After a story has been told by the teacher it may be repeated by one or more members of the class. If it is interesting do not fear that it will lose its charm through this process. It should become a part of the child's experience. Many stories after being told may be dramatized and played in the schoolroom.

There are so many story-books for children that a choice should not be difficult if the teacher will spend a little intelligent thought on the subject. The kindergarten publishing companies furnish a large number that are suitable for use in the lower primary grades as well as in the kindergarten. If the kindergartner has already told some of these, the children will welcome their old friends, so no primary teacher need be deterred from their use, while many of the stories are more adapted to primary than to kindergarten purposes.

Among these books the following will be found of great help and value: "For The Children's Hour," by Carolyn S. Bailey and Clara M. Lewis. This book contains one hundred and thirty-three stories many of which are excellent for primary children. Its price is one dollar.

"In Story-Land," by Elizabeth Harrison has fifteen stories, all suitable

for primary use. Price, one dollar and twenty-five cents.

"Mother Stories," by Maud Lindsay contains fifteen stories, and "More Mother Stories," by the same author contains twenty fascinating stories for little ones. The price of each is a dollar, and the former, especially, is rich in material for primary use.

"A Kindergarten Story Book," by Jane L. Hoxie, contains twenty-two stories and costs but fifty cents.

"Half a Hundred Stories," by half a hundred writers, has some interesting nature facts simply told. It costs seventy-five cents.

"Kindergarten Stories and Morning Talk," by Sarah E. Wiltse will furnish much material for the primary teacher. It contains about seventy-two stories and its price is seventy-five cents.

The "Boston Collection of Kindergarten Stories" has sixty-two stories. Its price is sixty cents.

"In the Child's World," by Emilie Poulsson, containing one hundred and thirty-two stories, has suggestions for morning talks on subjects that are of interest to all primary teachers. The price is two dollars.

"The Story Hour," by Kate Douglas Wiggin and Nora Archibald Smith, twelve stories and costs one dollar.

Any of these books will furnish models in the construction of stories for the youngest children, but to secure the best results the teacher should make the story her own, by telling it as graphically as possible in *her* words, not those of the book.

After the story has been told, wait until the following day before asking

for its reproduction. Then inquire, "how many boys and girls remember the story I told you yesterday? Can you tell me anything that was in it, Mary?"

As soon as the children grow eager to tell, call on some child to repeat all he or she can remember. Pay absolutely no attention to any mistakes in grammar. You cannot afford to discourage interest by criticism, but—if any child gives a full and correct sentence, especially one containing the correct form of a common error, say heartily, "wasn't that a nice way to say that, children? Did you all hear just what Mary said? Suppose you tell the last part of the story again, just as you did that time. Let us say the sentence as Mary said it. I'm so glad she knew the right way to put the words."

Children love praise and will strive eagerly for a few words of commendation, and if another child is asked to repeat the story he will almost invariably remember the right form. Encouragement is too sparingly given in the great majority of school rooms. It takes but a second to say "good," yet its judicious use produces more results than a dozen repetitions of "how can you be so careless?" or "I don't believe you will ever remember what is right."

A new story need not be given each day, but one should be told as frequently as the teacher thinks wise. For an ordinary class two *real* stories a week will probably be sufficient, and the book, "For the Children's Hour," to which reference has already been made, furnishes a large variety at a small cost.

Many stories may be illustrated by simple outline drawings and can easily be dramatized, as I have said before. Later on I hope to give suggestions for this latter pastime, as well as a list of stories that first-year pupils can easily "act out," as they call it.

In all this work the children's imagination has been unconsciously developed and their power of expression through the medium of language correspondingly increased.

In my next paper I should like to give many hints for definite instruction in the correct forms of speech made so attractive that the children of the lowest primary grades cannot be fascinated by them.

ANGELINA W. WR.

#### Observation Studies.

During the past year or more I have taken every opportunity to visit school classes in science work in different cities, and to observe particularly the attitude of the students toward the vocational aspect of their work. Since the appointment of a committee on Vocational and Industrial Education by the Legislature of Massachusetts, the question of vocational work in grammar and high schools, and the establishment of trade schools, have been receiving renewed and careful consideration by teachers, and this attention to the problem has influenced class work more or less. In this connection there is opportunity for but a glimmer at a few of the conditions of the vocational side of the problem.

Sometime ago I visited a class in Chemistry of fourth year high school pupils in a large school with

facility of equipment and a strong corps of teachers. The subject had been presented for its scientific and cultural value apparently. One of the questions discussed in the lesson I heard was the varying chemical constituents of the air. The range of the inquiry extended from the conditions of the air in crowded rooms requiring ventilation, to the probable conditions in the carboniferous age, and, on the analytical side, to the way new elements such as argon were discovered, and the determination of a means of separating such a supposed element when the chemical formulae reached in an analysis of the air indicated the presence of an unknown element. This recitation indicated that the pupils were awake to the larger meanings of chemical science. Their work in the laboratory had not been narrowly vocational on the commercial side, but was it not in the highest sense vocational for the art of living in this modern age of wide reaching interests?

Those who advocate the commercial imitations for vocational courses will not deny this, but they insist that many children cannot be interested in such an extended outlook, and need a training to fit them for narrow fields of labor if they are to feel that their school work is of such value as to make it worth while for them to attend for from two to four years after they are old enough to get work of some kind outside.

I visited a class this month where the teacher was evidently trying to give his pupils a facility in doing things without appealing to the interests that a large view of the mean-

ing of the work ought to give. This was a class in physics and they were studying the use of simple machines, such as the lever, pulley, wedge, etc. The class was working in the laboratory and trying to determine at what place on a lever 18 feet long a man would have to take hold, if he could exert a force of 180 lbs. in order to raise a weight of 1260 lbs. at the other end of the lever and three feet from the fulcrum, the lever itself weighing 10 lbs. per running foot. The class knew how to balance the moments of the weight, and of the force exerted by the man about the fulcrum, but did not know how to calculate the affect of the weight of the lever itself. One pupil, however, suggested that the three feet of the lever on the weight side of the fulcrum would balance three feet on the other side, and leave 12 feet of the lever to help lift the load. The teacher seemed to feel that for practical efficiency the children should not be allowed to think in this tentative and problematic way, but should learn to work always by a rule. He called for the attention of all from their work and explained to the class that the weight of the entire length of the lever was to be taken and considered as applied at the middle point, since it was of uniform section. This would make the moment of the lever itself equal to its total weight, 180 lbs. multiplied by 6 feet, the distance of the middle point from the fulcrum.

I watched the effect of this instruction on the class. It seemed to take the life out of their work at once. The rule did not help them to understand how the three feet of the lever on one



side of the fulcrum was balanced by taking the total weight at only 6 feet from the fulcrum on the other side. The children could in this case have easily been shown that, as they had suggested, three feet on each side of the fulcrum could be left out of account as balancing each other and the weight of but 12 feet of the lever taken as applied at its middle point, 9 feet from the fulcrum. But to admit this demand of the mind for an insight into the reason and explanation of things, is to admit that the children could be interested in the cultural aspect, and the rule of thumb method by which children may be pushed to an ability and skill in doing things without understanding the meaning of what they do made useless. The fault probably lies with the course of study and the teaching rather than with the children when they lose interest in educative methods and are willing to fall back on training methods. Trying to gain time in vocational preparation in this way is almost always to lose time for those who finally succeed in such preparation, and worse than this, it too often loses for the child the opportunity to become an artisan and leaves him merely a laborer. Statistics with reference to the wages earned in the ten years after quitting school, show almost universal advantage for the cultural method of teaching vocational subjects, although this may require from four to six years longer of schooling.

#### The Shell and the Kernel.

When a child begins to learn his environment the shell and the kernel *are not* two things but one, and that

one is the kernel. This is as to natural objects as of language. Indeed it ever remains true of it when she addresses the senses. The kernel is, of course, the meaning. The child puts but little meaning to an object perceived, but that link is the object. In remembering the object image is the meaning.

The child first learns language through the ears, but he uses all his senses to learn the external world. The spoken word is to him one with the object perceived, or with the image remembered. It is not until print or script is introduced that it is a distinct effort of consciousness to put the familiar object as seen with the familiar image as heard, into the printed word. The aural word image has been registered in the mind by six or seven years of constant repetition and experience before entering school. The aural sound "apple," for example, has been the object of the image, to the child. Now when called upon to make a similar connection of the printed word with the object image, as the case may be, the source of practically all of the difficulties in mastering his school tasks rests here. He does not fuse the object seen or its image remembered with the *printed word*, with any like the facility with which they are fused in the aural word. So it is about that the printed word must be translated into the aural word if he knows its meaning.

With young children, the words used in school are familiar to them; and they are always fused with the object or image in the mind of the child. The child readily tra-

the printed word into the aural as soon as he makes it out. But when he tackles an unfamiliar word *in print*, the aural sound does not help him to the meaning. If it came in conversation the child would guess its meaning from the connection, and so learn a new word. But he is not sufficiently familiar with printed words to do this, and so, little by little, the child merely translates them into their aural sound without stopping to discover their meaning. Now the child has entered upon the practice that leads to the senseless reading so common in even the good schools.

All this is self-evident to every teacher who looks into the child's mind when it is at work, but for one reason or another, the shell is taken for the kernel, and the learner comes to regard what he learns in school as a kind of juggling with words or figures without meaning. Whatever interest he has in the work of the school is other than that of mastering the sub-

jects of study; and this is so for the reason that these subjects mean so little to him. He either works for marks to be gotten by hook or crook or else he is interested in seeing how little he can do, without falling below the minimum. This is not true of all children, but of how many is it true?

My own conviction is that this sorry condition of so many children's minds would not be if from the beginning children undertook to do only what they have the knowledge and ability to understand, and if, further, they worked for the meaning at every step of their progress, and by such a method that with every step taken, there would be an increment of power that would enable them to take the next one understandingly. The schools have gotten into a state of mind in which real knowledge and power to use it are not the controlling ends of teacher or pupils.

G. P. B.

### "IN THE REALMS OF GOLD."

MABEL ELIZABETH FLETCHER.

Eva propped her geography up on her red pencil box and sank into a reverie. To the aggressive white questions on the front board demanding the industries of the Middle Atlantic States and the boundaries of Pennsylvania, she paid no attention; her spirit soared above the commonplace trivialities of geography to a land afar, to the very gates of Paradise. Over in the B class a big boy in a blue sweater was standing with one hand clasped convulsively on the back of his neck, reciting *Little Marjorie*. He was

deep in trouble; embarrassment at the sound of his own voice and the consciousness of the grins of his openly-exulting schoolmates excluded the necessary pathos from his tones. Miss Avice, fixing him with the holy zeal of poetry in her shining eyes, let her voice caress "Or is it the rain, ah me!" into a liquid murmur; the boy, time after time sung out desperately; "Or is it the rain, aw me!"

Elva watched the struggle dreamily; she heard and yet not heard. Miss Avice's poetry teaching had been the

upsetting of the primness of her days. Her figures that had before stood so stiff and straight now careered wildly down her paper, openly contemptuous of blue lines. Geographical facts that had fitted so neatly and systematically in her little brain now grew unaccountable friendly and hilarious, and capered in the wildest fashion. Nouns and verbs became as like as twins, and she welcomed either cheerfully and without prejudice, although her grammatical reasoning had heretofore so delighted Miss Avice that she had written in praise of it to a grammar doctor in a Normal school. Miss Avice had rather wonderingly attributed Elva's fall from grace to the influence of Mary Mackey, a dark child with a satanic smile and innumerable pennies for pickles; in reality Elva was bowed in worship at the feet of the Muse.

A warning glance from Miss Avice's eyes as she deliberately selected another B. class victim, set the child hastily to work. She bent her head over her book, but soon the products of New York faded obligingly into the background to make way for the little toy dog and the calico cat and the beanbag; for the Raggedy Man, the Knights of the Round Table, and a trooping host of dreamland folk, all dimly connected and luminously happy. In the pause, when they too faded, she fingered the yellow library certificate lying on her ink-well lid.

That library certificate, to Elva, was a veritable passport to Paradise, for with it, according to Miss Avice, one might demand a card and take out *hundreds of books* at the library up town. *Elva had an indistinct mem-*

ory of the library as a big, cool bewilderingly full of sausage-c pillars, tables and green lamp hung down from brass rods; above all, mysterious shelves books; books that Elva's hungry starved little soul cried out for. looked at the clock. Fifteen more—fifteen minutes of geog and nothing else, kept her from gates of Paradise, for at four, in pany with Maggie, she was to take certificate down. Ah, there *was* thing; and a thrill of horror shod her as she snatched up the yellow on which she had so painstakingly written her name. *This card will be accepted if soiled or folded* read, and wrung her hands, for corner was unmistakably a thumb mark. There had been chicken for dinner at home. With the sober reflection that school discipline so cruelly demands, she toed up to Miss Avice's side and the certificate under her very nose.

"Will they take it with them on?" she breathed. The small with brown eyes and a bewildering tangle of red hair-ribbons, slipped smoothly through the poetical and stopped and stared. Miss Avice closed her books.

"Please sit down," she said, a tone of it hurt. Elva found her back to her seat. She pillowed her head on her arms to conceal her and she raised it again, with a snuffle, Miss Avice had changed her chair and now sat before the abrupt descendant from the nous heights of poetry to the sive realm of fleshless facts.

She smoothed her hair and t

the boy in front of Elva; a serious-souled little boy with big steel-rimmed glasses.

"Homer, judging by the surface, what are the products of the Middle Atlantic States?" asked Miss Avice softly.

Homer, with much glibness, arose and replied: the accuracy of his answer was dependant not so much on his reasoning, as upon the memory of what Elva herself had worked out the day before. He sat down with an air of virtuous relief on his face.

"And, Elva," said Miss Avice, with a preoccupied pat at her hair "what are the products of New York?"

A sudden blankness overspread the child's face. Unnerved by the unusual rebuff she had received and all-too-suddenly-aware that she had not studied a bit, she sat in frightened silence.

"Elva?" There was a peremptory note in Miss Avice's voice that brought Elva to her feet, "What are the products of New York?"

Elva met the inquiring black eye of Mary Mackey stolidly. An advertisement she had come across in turning through her big sister's magazine came into her mind with clear-cut cruelty.

"Tombstones," she said stonily, and sat down.

She dimly saw Mary basely clap her hand over a smile; she barely heard the snicker that went over the class. She did hear, however, the words that pronounced her doom; "I wish to see you tonight, Elva."

In the moments that followed she suffered intensely. The humiliation she ordinarily would have felt at being kept after school was swallowed in the

bitterness of her disappointment. She and Maggie had planned to start to the library at four; for by five dark came on, the two railroads that must be crossed blossomed out in strange, winking lights, and the town took on a terrifying mysteriousness. To be back by dark had been Elva's mother's last command.

In the same stolid silence Elva watched Homer pass the waste-basket. She herself made no preparations for his coming, though the children around panted and squirmed as they reached under their seats for stray pencil shavings and scraps of paper. Even when big John Gray craftily put forth a huge foot and Homer fell over it into the waste-basket itself, she never lifted her eyes from the red pencil box.

At length the bell rang; the noisy lines filed out, and she and Miss Avice were left together. Someone had shut the outside door, so that the room was painfully silent, except for the rustle of Miss Avice's fingers through the thick bunches of papers on her desk. The old clock on the wall ticked the minutes away solemnly and steadily; to the child its diabolical precision was almost nerve-racking. She suddenly caught her breath and looked up, only to meet Miss Avice's searching gaze.

Then Elva dropped her head on her arms and cried again. Her little body shook with silent but tumultuous sobs, and the girl at the desk watched her with a kind of numb pity. Miss Avice was very tired, and she had always found it easier to deal with hit-out-from-the-shoulder badness than to pierce the subtle, fine-woven veil of mystery that enwraps a good child

who suddenly falls from grace. Besides she was not quite sure whether Elva or Maggie was to blame. Finally she spoke, breathing inwardly a prayer that the morrow might be free from all complexities.

"You may go, Elva," she said wearily, and reached for the volume of Keats on her desk.

Elva, after one drenched look at the clock went. Yet no sooner had the school doors banged behind her than hope surged up in her heart, for Maggie was leaning up against the gatepost nonchalantly eating a pickle.

"Ain't she the limit?" asked Maggie, proffering a bite of the pickle and watching anxiously as Elva's teeth closed over it. "She's meaner'n dirt!"

"I just hate her!" answered Elva, wiping her eyes on her dress ruffle.

"Is it too late to go to the liberry, Maggie?"

"Naw, we c'n run all the way. Got your stifficit?" Elva held out her hand.

"O law!" exclaimed Maggie as she took the paper. It was rumpled from the hot clasp of Elva's hand; it was bedewed with Elva's tears until the name had become an illegible blur.

"O law!" she repeated, and there was almost sympathy in her black eyes as she looked at the forlorn little figure before her.

Elva gazed for a moment at the soiled paper. Then, an exile from Paradise, and with all the glorious, luminous hopes of it still young in her soul, she sat down on the curbing and for the third time lifted up her voice and wept.

### FILLING 'TOODLES' STOCKING.

#### *A Christmas Play for Children.*

BY GRACE J. AUSTIN.

*Stage Setting*—Any room containing a fireplace. A small bed in one corner. A curtain may be used between the scenes, or not, at pleasure.

#### CHARACTERS.

SANTA CLAUS,  
MRS. SANTA CLAUS,  
PAPA,  
MAMMA,  
BROTHERS AND SISTERS,  
FAIRY-MAKE-IT-RIGHT.

All these parts to be taken by children of different ages.

TOODLES . . . . . A five year old girl.

The only costumes needed are simple, suggestive ones for Santa, Mrs. Santa, Papa, Mamma, and Fairy Make-it-Right. Toodles appears in a nightdress.

#### SCENE I.

*Toodles—alone.*

*I'm not a wee bit sleepy,  
But I think I'll go to bed;*

I've kissed mamma and hugged her,  
And all my prayers are said.  
But first I'll hang my stocking  
Where Santa'll see it plain;  
I wonder if he'll really come,—  
I think I hear it rain.

She bends and calls up the chimney,—  
Be sure to come, old Santa,  
And bring a lot of toys,  
And don't forget a single one  
Of all the girls and boys.

She climbs into bed and nestles down with closed eyes.

Enter Santa Claus and Mrs. Santa Claus, from behind a screen near the chimney, making it appear as much as possible, *from the chimney*. Santa Claus is carrying a large sack of toys.

SANTA CLAUS:—

Ah, this is warm and cheery,

A change from rain and chill;  
 Oh, glad my heart rejoices  
 When chimneys call me still!  
 Each year since this was builded  
 I've climbed its smoky flue,  
 And children yet await us,  
 To them my faith is true.  
 My dear, take down the stocking  
 And shake out well the toe,  
 While I am swift selecting  
 Such toys as there can go.  
 They must be nice, for Toodles  
 Is a darling little pet;  
 Of all the scores of children  
 She is the sweetest yet.

MRS. SANTA CLAUS:—

Here is enough, I fancy,  
 To fill it as you may;  
 With sugar-plums and dolly,  
 A "Puss-in-boots" so gay.

SANTA CLAUS and Mrs. SANTA  
 CLAUS, together:—

Years ago we learned the way  
 Little stockings well to fill;  
 Loving hearts are light and gay,  
 Loving hands are giving still.

#### SCENE II.

Santa and wife, gathering sack of toys,  
 about to leave.

Enter PAPA and MAMMA,—speaking  
 together:—

O Santa Claus, we've caught you  
 At your same kindly tricks!  
 We thought the rain might hinder,—  
 I fear we're in a fix!

They show a basket, piled with toys.

We could not let our Toodles

An empty stocking find,

So we have come to fill it

With very willing mind.

But see 'tis very tiny,

What ever can we do?

Our place is surely taken

When your kind work is through.

PAPA:—

You're old and wise, Sir Santa,  
 You've travelled o'er the earth;  
 What happens in such cases  
 To keep the joy and mirth?

MAMMA, pleadingly:—

Please let us help in giving!  
 I've planned and worked with care;  
 The fathers and the mothers  
 In truth deserve a share.

SANTA CLAUS, strokes his beard as he  
 speaks:—

Ahem! Ahem! I'm puzzled  
 To solve this tangled plight;  
 We filled that little stocking  
 With all our practiced might.

All four stand with uplifted hands.

Enter a troop of brothers and sisters, all  
 bringing gifts.

BROTHERS and SISTERS:—

Oh, where is Toodles' stocking?  
 Has Santa filled it yet?  
 We want a share in giving  
 To little sister pet.

Seeing the others,

Oh, hush! There's surely Santa.

And that must be his wife;

We ne'er before have caught them

No, never in our life!

Papa is there; and mamma too,

All standing silent by:

Oh, what can be the matter?

They look about to cry.

THE FOUR ELDERS, speaking to-  
 gether:—

Ah, children dear, we're sad, now,

Not knowing how to plan;

Our gifts are here, but put them

In that wee sock, who can?

BROTHERS:—

And see our high-piled basket!

SISTERS:—

We've brought her such a doll!

BROTHERS:—

A Noah's Ark and candy,—

SISTERS:—

Oh, she must have them all!

MRS. SANTA CLAUS:—

All Christmas gifts are twice good

When pulled from stocking toe,

So Santa Claus and I too

Can feel your tender woe.

All groan, the children cry.

### SCENE III.

All the characters as before.

Enter Fairy Make-it-Right, dancing.

FAIRY-MAKE-IT-RIGHT:—

When fail ye worthy mortals,

Though trying with your might .

Then is the time for calling

On Fairy-Make-it-Right.

Now all you kindly people,

I bring you Christmas cheer!

Who thinks of disappointing

This little child so dear?

Nor should you generous givers .

Be made so very sad;

My magic wand I'm waving

To quickly make you glad.

This stocking wee I'm taking

And by my magic art

It soon shall grow and lengthen

Till all may fill a part.

She takes down stocking, bends over it with back to audience, and takes from a special pocket a large stocking of black netting.

FAIRY MAKE-IT-RIGHT, holding out stocking:—

Now see a fairy's working!

See how we make things grow!

Though very thin, by stretching

'Twill hold your gifts, I know.

SANTA CLAUS and WIFE:—

We're just a plain old couple

Not skilled in fairy art,

But glad we join in helping

And merry we in heart.

They fill in gifts.

PAPA and MAMMA:—

O Fairy, little Fairy,

How rich and rare your skill!

How many cares and troubles

You drive away at will!

Oh, what a gallant stocking,

Of size for giant grim!

Yet never mind, we'll fill it

From toe to topmost brim.

BROTHERS and SISTERS:—

Hurrah, for saints and fairies!

PAPA and MAMMA:—

Hush, hush,—beware of noise!

BROTHERS and SISTERS:—

Pile in the gifts so jolly!

PAPA and MAMMA:—

God bless our girls and boys!

PARENTS and CHILDREN TOGETHER,

while lifting the stocking to its place.

Up to the chimney swinging

The fairy's work we raise,

And each with all uniting

We give her gladsome praise.

All then gather about Toodles bed, singing softly to the tune of "Flow Gently, Sweet Afton":—

Oh, sleep, little Toodles, till morning's clear light

Shall bring you the gifts for your heart's rich delight;

The saint and the fairy their kind way— must go,

And joy in their pathway shall radiant flow.

Oh, keep thy warm heart, be loving to all;

Forget not the children where few pleasures fall:

Awake in thy kingdom, O child of our love!

While every fair blessing shall hover above.

## COMMENT.

### SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

The Public School Publishing Co.

Bloomington, Illinois.

GEO. P. BROWN, Editor

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THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL PUBLISHING CO.  
BLOOMINGTON, ILLINOIS.

#### TO OUR READERS—GOOD NEWS.

For the new year of 1908 we have in preparation a valuable addition to "SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION" which will greatly increase its usefulness to the work in the school room, and we hope to the lives of the children. An illustrated inset will be added to the magazine, devoted to the out of doors, and to geography and history connected with current events.

In this department, Supt. F. M. Fultz, of Burlington, Iowa, will give a series of studies of physiography and of industries. These are more than type studies for each article devel-

ops a central idea and explains a process of growth in the formation of the earth's surface, and the entire series follows, in a general way, the history of conditions through which the earth's surface has become as it is. The series will include studies of Glaciers, of Canyon and valley formation by erosion, of the caves in the lime stone formations which were built up under the ocean, of soils and some typical agricultural industries, of some characteristics of cities, etc.

James Speed will give a series of letters on the out of door life of two boys on a camping trip written by the boys and illustrated from camera pictures.

There will, also, be articles on the growing of plants and making of gardens by school children, illustrated from the work of Superintendent Stableton, of Bloomington, and each issue will contain sketches of current history told in a way to connect with the life of the nation or of mankind and thus serve to illustrate the school work in history.

This inset will be supplied separately in quantities for use in the hands of the pupils in the upper grammar grades at a very reasonable price. The matter in each issue will serve to supplement many phases of the school room work.

#### HIGH SCHOOL CONFERENCE.

The conferences of High School and University teachers are evidently proving of very great value to both. The recent meeting at the University of Illinois was well attended. The freedom of discussion and the ability of the high school teachers to present the real needs of their pupils is only equaled, as a factor in the success of these meetings, by the appreciative attitude of the college teacher toward these needs, and the very evident desire to adjust the requirements of the University in such a way as to leave to the High School all of the freedom in its work possible.

The special value of the Illinois University conferences of this series lies in the character of the program provided for discussion. The chairman, Prof. H. A. Hollister, has planned that the discussions shall center in the need of a better adjustment of the high school program of studies to meet the psychological requirements of the secondary stage in the education of the children, as well as the requirements of the higher educational and technical schools.



The addresses at the general sessions, outlined the movement in this study of the needed re-adjustments in an excellent way. Dean A. Moss Hill, of Cornell, gave an able exposition of the necessary relation of the order in which the subjects of the course be presented to the immediate needs of the pupils as growing personalities. Prof. W. C. Bagley, of Oswego Normal, considered the relative amounts of prescribed and elective work needed to insure the best adjustment to the entire purpose of the high school, and Prin. F. L. Sims, of New Trier Township High School, the relation of grammar and high school programs in any re-adjustment. A more detailed report of the general and sectional meetings may be given in our next number.

#### NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

##### DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

The meeting of the Department of Superintendence will be held in Washington, D. C., February 25, 26, and 27, 1908.

Railway rates have not yet been determined, but it is expected that we may be able to make announcement of rates some time in December.

The new Willard Hotel will be the headquarters of the Department. The prospect is excellent for the largest meeting of the Department yet held.

#### ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The meeting will be held December 26, 27, 28. The general topic for the general sessions will be, "Education for Efficiency." Among those who will appear on program are, Prof. George E. Vincent, Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, Ex. Supt. W. W. Stetson, of Maine, State Supt. Francis G. Blair, L. C. Lord, David Felmley, Governor Deneen, and Prof. Chester Greenough, of the University of Illinois.

Memorial services in honor of Mr. R. N. Stotler, Wilbur S. Jackman, Edward C. Delano, and Enoch A. Gastman, will be held at special session on Friday, after section meetings. The Imperial Quartette will furnish music for the different sessions.

Programs are not yet printed, but will be sent as soon as possible.

JOHN D. SHOOP,  
Ch. Ex. Comm.tee.

31 and Loomis St., Chicago.

#### ILLINOIS COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

The fifth annual meeting of county superintendents will be held at the court house, Springfield, on December 26. The program announced is as follows:

President's Address—"Problems" — Supt. James W. Roberts, Jersey county.

Address—"High School Privileges for Illi-

nois Boys and Girls," Supt. Cyrus Grover, Stephenson county.

Discussion, led by Supt. Royal T. Morgan, DuPage county.

Address—"Do we not need a New Teachers' Certificate Law? If so, should not County Superintendents take the Initiative in securing one?" Supt. B. C. Moore, McLean county.

Discussion, led by Supt. H. A. Dean, Kane county.

Address—"Our Attitude toward or our Relation to School Legislation." Supt. G. W. Conn, McHenry county.

Discussion, led by Co. Supt. David P. Hollis, Pike county.

#### GIVE MEANING TO THE SCHOOL WORK.

We call attention of the reader to the emphasis given in this number to the need that the learner shall know the meaning of what he studies and of the words he uses. The articles of Miss Lampe and Miss Wray are especially strong. Our schools are doing much for the children in cultivating the proper spirit in their intercourse with one another and in teaching the amenities of life, but they are too weak in securing results in knowledge that is commensurate with the time and energy spent in acquiring them, and too inefficient by far in cultivating the power of the student in personal initiative even in the prescribed subjects of study. We must change from cramming the memory with words and statements without sufficient meaning to setting the pupils to wrestling with problems. This method of teaching will soonest convince the learner that everything must be understood before it will pass for knowledge.

What the children are giving on examination tests are in too many cases not evidence of knowledge at all. Much that they say in the recitation period is equally faulty. Children are interested when they understand, and especially when they struggle for victory with a foe that is not too strong for them.

#### N.E.A. GOES TO CLEVELAND.

The Executive Committee authorize the announcement that all local conditions for holding the next annual convention in Cleveland, Ohio, have been found satisfactory. The choice of the Board of Directors made at the Los Angeles convention is therefore confirmed, and Cleveland is selected for the Forty-sixth Annual Convention, June 29 to July 3, 1908.

It was a source of regret to all members that it was not possible to hold the Fiftieth Anniversary of the organization of the Association in Philadelphia. The Cleveland convention, however, will be the Fiftieth Anniversary of the first regular convention of the Association, which was held in Cincinnati, Ohio, August 11-13, 1858. It is appropriate that the fiftieth anniversary of the first convention be held in the state of Ohio; a state which has been one of the most loyal and helpful to the interests of

the Association during all those years; which ranks third among all of the states in the total number of memberships for fifty years; and third also in the present number of active members enrolled, altho it has had the advantages of but one convention since 1858, viz., at Cleveland in 1870.

Since Cleveland is near the geographical center of our active membership, it is hoped that a large proportion of active members may be able to attend the next convention. It is desired that all directors make special efforts to secure this result.

#### THE LOS ANGELES CONVENTION.

It will be gratifying to you to learn that the Los Angeles convention proves to have been the third largest in point of membership in the history of the association, Boston (1903) being first, and Asbury Park (1905), second. The total registration at *Los Angeles* amounted to 12,818, exclusive of approximately 4,500 active members not present at Los Angeles, to be included later in the total enrollment for the year. The corresponding enrollment at the Los Angeles convention in 1899 was 11,982, increased later by 1,674 active members not present at the meeting, making a total of 13,656 for that year.

The following table shows enrollment by sections:

North Atlantic States.....	716
South Atlantic States .....	46
South Central States .....	839
North Central States .....	3,015
Western States .....	8,139
Foreign .....	63
Total .....	12,818

It is worthy of note that the state of California, for which 5,000 members were guaranteed by the Los Angeles local committee, had an enrollment of 6,306; Arizona, which has but 538 teachers, according to the latest United States Commissioner's Report, furnished 583 members. Utah sent 380 members, and Texas 458—the highest number from these states at any convention.

In other respects the Los Angeles convention proved to be a gratifying success in spite of many embarrassments in the rate situation.

#### LITERATURE IN THE WHOLE.

How should literature be studied? It should be studied to get straight to the heart of the author,—his thought and his feeling. Knowledge of historical and classical allusions and definitions of words are necessary to an appreciation of literature; but any chasing down of allusions for the sake of mere knowledge, any seeking out of the origins of words, any study of the life of an author when it sheds no light on the work in hand, is a waste of time; for it distracts the attention from the literature, and never allows the reader to catch the fires of a great creative spirit. So, too, while literature is the best instructor on composition, it should never be

called upon to give this lesson until it has first unfolded its great truth to the reader. And there can be nothing more stultifying to a class than forcing these secondary matters to a prominent place in the study of literature, because, forsooth, they are the only things that can be marked and evaluated. How often a child in school is trained to dislike literature because he is made to spend his energy turning the leaves of a dictionary or some handbook, or learning the nauseating drivel to be found in some edited texts! When an instructor arrives at this stage of teaching where little things are seen out of all true proportion, his life has already fled, and soon the life of the class will flicker and die. Every student that makes details of supreme importance is like a near-sighted man studying some noble work of architecture. He may know the beauty of each individual column, the perfection of each pedestal and capital, the graceful lines of each window and door; yet this near-sighted man would have little sense of the strength and harmony of the whole. And there are many students in our classes making a myopic study of literature. Its minutest details are perfectly known; but the great broad significance of its mighty unity is never dreamt of.

The method, then, will be to seek first the truth. If in the search historic or classic references must be known, if new words are hiding the meaning, if figures of speech need explanation, if the biography of the author throws light on his meaning, learn these things. But always remember that they are but incidents; the real thing is the living truth which a great spirit has found and written down for the enlightenment of the soul.—W. F. Webster in "Teaching English in the High School." (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)

#### CHANGE IN THE STATE LAW REGULATING THE PROFESSION OF ACCOUNTANTS.

According to an act passed in 1903 regulating the profession of public accountants, no one could be admitted to the examinations for a certificate as Certified Public Accountant unless he was a graduate of a high school with a four years' course, or could prove to the satisfaction of the State University authorities that he had an education equivalent to this.

As this requirement seemed to work hardship on a good many accountants, the legislature last winter amended the law, doing away with the preliminary high school education, so far as concerns the examinations to be held in May, 1908, and May, 1909. This will give an opportunity for accountants of experience, who are not graduates of high schools, to try for their certificates.

By law the State University at Urbana sets the examinations, and any information about them can be had by writing to the University Committee on Accountancy, 305 University Hall, Urbana.

## THE DITTENBERGER LIBRARY.

The University of Illinois has just acquired by purchase the library of Dr. William Dittenberger, Professor of classical philology in the University of Halle. The library is one of the most valuable collections which has come upon the market for many years and represents the labor of one of the most distinguished scholars of Germany in the field of classical literature and philology. It contains about three thousand volumes. William Dittenberger was a man of unusual breadth of scholarship and sympathy. He was not merely a dry as dust bookworm, devoted as he was to the advance of philological science, but was an active, energetic and public spirited citizen in one of the leading cities of Germany. Although professor of Greek, and giving the toil of a life time to the study of Greek civilization, he was for many years president of the municipal council of his native city.

The library is especially rich in epigraphical and paleographical works and is especially valuable from this point of view. At the same time it covers completely the wide field of classical philology. The works in both Greek and Latin, poets and prose writers are represented by the best of the old editions and the more recent special works. The library is not one which has been allowed to deteriorate because of disuse, as so often happens in the case of elderly men, but is the library of a man who was continuously at work to the very hour of his death. It was therefore constantly increased and kept up to date.

This collection will go a long way toward making the University of Illinois an important center for the study of the classical languages and ancient history and archaeology.

## SHADOW SKETCHES.

Nature was the first artist, and a shadow sketch was the first picture made. She is still spreading her beautiful designs which we rever a beautiful object stands in the sunlight, and we are about to learn what she can teach us of her method. In going along country roads and paths, have you not admired the shadows that the flowers and all graceful plants cast on the ground? Those of leaves and vines actually display the outlines of the plants to even better advantage than can be seen in the objects themselves, because shadows have no perspective and no shading. An easy way to arrange a vase of flowers or of leafy twigs for drawing is to study their shadow on a wall while the vase is slowly turned, until the shadow shows them to be suitably placed.

As a rule objects like large leaves and birds' nests are best for simple outlining, while delicate and complicated shadows like those cast by vines and by most flowers are best for the blackened surface of the silhouette. Shadow outlines make good records of flowers and plants if accompanied by the usual notes on color and habit.—*From Nature and Science in October St. Nicholas.*

## THREE HUNDRED BABIES WANTED.

With the November issue the *Delineator* started a CHILD-RESCUE Campaign, the bringing into the home that needs a child the child that needs a home. There are 2,000,000 homes in America that know not the joys that children bring. There are 25,000 children in New York alone who know not what home means.

We started this campaign with fear and doubt. To ask strangers to us to adopt these little ones equally strangers to us seemed daring indeed. And we could appeal to only a million homes, the million homes into which the *Delineator* goes—not one-twentieth of all the homes in this great country. Caution made us tell the stories of only two. We feared that even these might not be asked for. We doubted the greatness of the great American heart. We doubted, and we are ashamed.

Over two hundred eager hands have already been extended. Three hundred requests for these little ones—for any homeless little one—have already been received through the mails. Women have come for miles away into our building asking for these precious ones; men have journeyed a thousand miles to beg one for their homes. We told their story; we appealed to our worshiped American womanhood, and it hastens to take these little ones into its heart. We continue this campaign for homes for other homeless waifs in the December *Delineator*. We shall keep on with it. If one brief appeal to one-twentieth of the homes in America can bring this result, what of good may we not yet do?

We are proud of the December *Delineator*. It contains many notable features. We are proud of our work for the year; proud that we stand acknowledged as the greatest fashion authority in the world; proud of the most famous people who have contributed to our pages. But it is not in these that our greatest pride lies.

The Child-Rescue Campaign, the homeless child, the childless home, the bringing of these little into the homes where little ones are needed, this movement is of our pride and of our heart. And you—will you make it of your heart? Will you give us such assistance as you can?

THE DELINEATOR,  
Butterick Bldg., New York.

## A WORK AMONG WOMEN THAT PAYS

"What is the Boston Trade-School for Girls?" I asked.

"Come and see," my friend answered, and made an appointment to show me the school.

We went together to 674 Massachusetts avenue. There we found 140 girls being taught the trades of plain sewing, dressmaking, millinery, machine-operating, and straw-hat making. The school keeps every week day from half past eight till five.

In the classrooms the girls, each in a white, ruffled apron, sat around long tables sewing, while the teacher moved from one to another directing and criticizing.

We examined their work, the first samp-

lers, the children's simple clothing, the under-clothing, the linen shirt-waist dresses, and the brown wool dress, which three of the girls in the dressmaking room were finishing, one embroidering the sleeves, another finishing the waist and another the skirt. The dressmaker was teaching a fourth girl to drape the blue waist that hung on the form.

We paused at the door of the millinery-room to watch a new girl laboriously covering a wire frame with buckram. We visited the class in machine-operating, and saw their first coarse aprons as well as the fine underclothing on which they were at work.

"I let each girl progress as fast as she is able," the teacher said, "just as in a shop." This was true of all the classes in the school. "If one can learn on two aprons, it is not fair to make her do more because another needs four."

"Where do these girls come from?" I asked.

"From Boston and the towns nearby," was the answer. "The school is free. Girls who must leave the public school as soon as the law allows to earn their living come here, because a year at the school will enable them to enter a trade as trained workers with good wages and ability to advance quickly, instead of beginning as poorly paid apprentices and picking up the trade for themselves."—*From Edward Everett Hale's Lend-a-Hand Circle in THE CIRCLE for December.*

#### PAMPHLET ON SPELLING.

We published in the November and December numbers a pamphlet on Teaching Spelling that breaks new ground in this much cultivated field. There is more good, hard sense in it than has been put into print for years. It is a practical application of psychology to teaching spelling.

We have a few copies remaining after filling an order for it in pamphlet form.

We will fill additional orders at five cents a copy to a limited number.

Ten copies for forty cents. Send orders at once.

PUBLIC SCHOOL PUBLISHING Co.,  
Bloomington, Ill.

## BOOK TABLE

FIRST-YEAR MATHEMATICS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS, by George William Myers, Professor of the Teaching of Mathematics and Astronomy, College of Education of the University of Chicago. 181 pages, cloth. Price \$1.00 net. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

GEOMETRIC EXERCISES FOR ALGEBRAIC SOLUTION, Second-Year Mathematics for Secondary Schools, by George William Myers, Professor of the Teaching of Mathematics and Astronomy, College of Education of the University of Chicago. 71

pages, cloth. Price 75 cents net. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

These two books give startling evidence that the present is a period in the history of educational thought of revolutions. Apparently no doctrine or principle of teaching in any subject is in a position of stable equilibrium. This must be so when the fundamental doctrine of formal discipline is questioned, and no other general principle has yet been formulated as a guide in the organization of school work. In general our revolutionists are clamoring for psychological organization to replace what they style the logical ordering of subject matter, but each apparently has his own notion as to what a psychological ordering requires.

It is unfortunate that the psychological has been conceived of as opposed to the logical. It is as though one said that democracy is opposed to government. To the old doctrine of the divine right of kings every step toward constitutional government was a step toward anarchy, but today the term government means an organization of the people, for the general interests of the people, directed by the people. Anything else is autocratic rule by one, or a few, or by the mob, and not government. The idea of self government has become the generic idea of government. So the idea of psychological is not opposed to logical but it enriches the term by asserting that the logical is the self-ordered or the self becoming logical.

Looked at in this way Professor Myers has contributed some excellent material, in these two books of exercises for first and second year mathematics, to supplement the matter in the regular texts. The trouble with our algebras and geometries is not that they present the subjects in their logical order, but that they impose this order on the child without any introductory opening out of the subjects which will indicate their value. In these subjects it is not the usefulness of the formulae they provide for simplifying computations that should be impressed on the pupils' minds, so much as the value of the means they furnish for an analytical study of any complex question requiring the determination of the factors and their relations which are needed to measure quantities. It is their value in developing formulae of any kind that may be needed, rather than their value in demonstrating the truth of a commonly used rule, that will stimulate the mind to a mastery of these subjects. This is the cultural value of the subjects, and if our method of presentation is to be psychological, it must stimulate the self to work in this attitude.

Of these two books, the one for first year mathematics seems to appeal too much to so called practical uses. It is easy to divert the attention by too many applications.

The general purpose of this book seems to be, however, the development of a cultural interest in the work. The book for the second year is planned to be used only as supplementary to the Geometry text, and is an altogether valuable arrangement of exercises for this purpose.

G. A. B.

FAMOUS PICTURES OF CHILDREN, by Julia Augusta Schwartz. Cloth, 12 mo., 144 pages, with illustrations. Price, 40 cents.

EXPLORERS AND FOUNDERS OF AMERICA, by Anna Elizabeth Foote and Avery Warner Skinner, Cloth, 12 mo., 310 pages, illustrated. Price, 60 cents.

THE ADVENTURES OF DEERSLAYER, adapted from Cooper's "Deerslayer" by Margaret N. Haight. Cloth, 12 mo., 131 pages, illustrated. Price, 35 cents.

Three Volumes of the American Book Company's series of Eclectic Readings:—

These books furnish a variety of material, some of which is excellent for use by teachers. They are all story books. The first gives some very simple stories of the painters and pictures represented. Some of these, especially those of the Christ Child furnish admirable material for oral and written language work in third and fourth grade.

The second book gives thirty-four short stories, some eight or ten of which are of founders and the rest of explorers of America. These relate to the Atlantic states except the early discoveries made by the Spanish and French of the Mississippi Valley, and in Central and South America on the Pacific side. The stories are well told in simple and expressive style suitable for fourth and fifth year grades.

The adaption of Cooper's "Deerslayer" is very successfully done. It puts this story within the reach of fifth and sixth grade pupils, and should lead them to read the original.

LINGUISTIC DEVELOPMENT AND EDUCATION, by M. V. O'Shea, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin. 347 pages, cloth. The MacMillan Co., New York.

Professor O'Shea has presented in this volume the results of quite an extended series of observations of his own, on the early attempts of children to talk and has, also, drawn upon the observations of others in a way to give more meaning to the deductions that have been sought as guides for the teacher. A marked change in the attitude toward the personality of the child in the interpretations of his activity is characteristic of this book. It is no longer the external and formal classification of the child's acts, but these are interpreted by the function with which his psychic nature would impress these acts.

The style of writing used in presenting these studies is very clear, the statements are simple and direct in form and arranged so as to hold the attention and create an interest in the further development of the subject. All teachers will find a careful study of the book of value.

There are two parts to the treatment. The first considers the early and non-reflective process of learning to talk, and the second, the more reflective process of learning to

read. There is, also a chapter on the acquisition of a foreign tongue.

The following topics are some of those treated, and they will indicate the lines of investigation followed.

In chapter one, pre-linguistic expression is considered in its reflex, its purposeful, and its efforts at interpretive expression. Motive for expression is found at the outset. In chapter two, voice play and linguistic invention are observed in learning to talk as well as imitation and understanding of words as symbols. Chapters three, four and five follow the growth in power to use the different parts of speech, and chapter six completes the first part with a discussion of the extent and content of meaning in the child's symbols. The second part gives six chapters on learning to read. Various methods are discussed in the light of the observed facts of the way the child's mind works.

G. A. B.

WINNOWINGS FOR WASHINGTON'S BIRTHDAY, by Agnes Mawson, author of "Winnowings for Lincoln's Birthday."

Part I, selections for Grammar and High Schools. Part II, For Little Folk, Anecdotes. Paper cover, 8 mo., 190 pages. D. Appleton and Co.

This little book contains an excellent biographical sketch, many short selections from Washington's speeches, and letters. A large number of selections in both prose and poetry containing beautiful thoughts about Washington are given in the first part. These are adapted for use with older children. The second part is for small children and is similar in arrangement. At the end is Washington's Farewell Address.

NEWTON'S AND TREAT'S OUTLINES FOR REVIEW IN HISTORY. By Charles Bertram Newton and Edwin Bryant Treat, of the Lawrenceville School. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

Greek History. Cloth, 16mo, 51 pages. Price, 25 cents.

Roman History. Cloth, 16mo. 62 pages. Price, 25 cents.

These little books will fix and establish in the mind of the student the essential points in Greek and Roman history, in their proper perspective. Great care has been employed in the arrangement of material, and in the selection of type, and ease of reference has been first considered. Many dates have been included, and complete indexes, together with fifty typical questions from college entrance examination papers, render the books most helpful. While intended, of course, to be used only in connection with, or following, complete text-books, they may be used with any good books.

Teacher—Thomas, I saw you laugh just now. What are you laughing about?

Tommy—I was just thinking about something.

Teacher—You have no business thinking during school hours. Don't let it occur again.

# SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

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No. 5

## EDUCATIONAL SURVEY.

**National Bureau of Education**

The Secretary of the Interior is asking for an increase in appropriations for the National Bureau of Education. More help is needed to carry on the work of the department and better salaries must be paid to retain and secure competent assistants. The commissioner's salary is wholly inadequate. It is strange indeed that a nation whose existence as a free government depends wholly upon an ever increasing betterment of the education of the citizens, shall continue to make such beggarly appropriations for the running expenses of its education department that the annual reports of the Bureau cannot be printed for two years after they are ready for publication. The chief business of the Bureau is educational investigations with a view to collecting and diffusing information and expert advice respecting industrial education, rural schools, agricultural and mechanical colleges, higher education, the construction and equipment of school buildings, educational legislation, the records and reports of educational systems and institutions. It is especially important at this time that the Bureau shall be able to employ highly competent specialists for longer or shorter periods in the investigation of the methods and progress of the practice of education as it is being worked out

in typical localities, and thus become the source of information and advice for all who need help. The Bureau has been of great value in later years but its practical value can be increased many fold by increasing its force of expert educationists. This and the legal duties above enumerated demand a larger appropriation of money. The Bureau has established itself as a permanent department of our national government. Let the appropriations be adequate to its needs.

This is a matter that concerns the entire nation and the educational public should see that their representatives and senators in the different states are informed of the needs of this important Bureau. The executive power of the Bureau is not great but its educational influence is limited only by its ability to employ the force necessary to improve its opportunities for valuable service.

### **Re-Adjustment of Studies in High Schools**

Dr. A. Ross Hill, who is dean of education in Cornell University, gave an illuminating address before the recent High School Conference, held at the University of Illinois, on the re-adjustment of studies in secondary schools.

Probably our public high schools have been the slowest of all educational institutions to respond to the de-

mand that they meet social needs. In so far as a youth is anything, he is practical. He is not a dreamer. He wishes to see the meaning in all instruction. He is an idealist but his ideals are not day-dreams. He is interested only in such as he believes will work, and he is interested in instruction only so far as he sees it to be workable. His life outside the school is devoted to realizing a variety of ends in response to the stimulus of a varied environment. His ideals are dependent upon his sense experience so are his ideas. The school seeks to give a fixedness to ideas by putting order into his ideas. He must see the bearing of the ideas his instruction gives upon the realizing of ideals. This ordering of ideas and giving stability to ideals is the distinguishing function of the school when contrasted with the spontaneous life outside.

It is the conviction of the writer that the commanding purpose of both elementary and secondary schooling is the gathering and ordering of useful knowledge, so as to increase power. Power increases as the personality makes use of knowledge in realizing its ideal—in the solution of its problem, in other phrase. In the beginning the child is “a shifting impulse, unstable, with no distinct aims or ambitions, but with a sense of freedom and independence that resents dictation.” He must be tamed by two sets of experiences: (1) his interest in some end; and (2) the meaning he discovers in his studies that leads to that end. These two experiences are not limited to adjustments of the personality to the phases of social life or *environment*. Indeed they will arise

with even greater intensity and interest in the solution of the problems that the human race has sought to solve, and which the text-books embody. This mastery of problems by which the race has grown strong is quite as important a function of the school as is the socializing of the student. The school must give to this shifting impulse self-command, stability of purpose, and interest in its pursuit.

The present social environment embodies the instruments that must be used by the school. What is embodied in this environment? That which is the course of study of the school. This environment is reading, arithmetic, language, geography, industrial arts, and the rest. What is more profitable as a socializing influence than the interested study of the elements that fuse together to make society?

But society is more than these forms through which it utters itself. It is that which is behind the utterance—the meaning which seeks to clothe itself in these forms. The school socializes the scholar most effectually when the scholar learns from it the meanings of these forms. These meanings are society’s soul. These forms are the soul’s expression of itself—as we discover when we analyze any legitimate vocation into its elements. The fundamental purpose of the soul of society in the use of its instruments of knowledge and of purpose, is a larger freedom, a larger social life. Does not this fact point the way by which the best and most thorough socialization of the individual is to be secured.

What is the meaning of the cry on so many lips, “We must socialize the children?” One would think that it

means that they are to be socialized by practicing in the schools the vocations through which food, clothing, and shelter for the body and entertainment for the mind are secured.

The fault in what was called the "old education" was not in *what* it tried to do so much as in *how* it tried. What it sought to do was to lift the child onto the shoulders of the race and so enlarge his view of life. "As a man thinketh, so is he" in his intellectual life; but "As a man thinketh in his heart so is he" when manhood is defined. It is this completer conception of life that the old education and, apparently, the new education are cutting out of their view.

#### Spelling and Primary Grammar

How to teach spelling and primary grammar so as to insure respectable orthography and good English in the elementary schools is a problem. The modern answer has been, "Burn all the grammars and let the spelling take care of itself." But neither speech nor orthography has improved under that regime.

Neither "reformed" spelling nor "simplified" spelling promises that any uniform results will be secured by less labor than is now bestowed; and they are yet a prophesy.

The school-master has grown weary in his search for a solution of the problem and is now disposed to close his ears to all further suggestions. "Learn to spell by spelling" seems to be the only method of solution, and that never brings the desired answer. But we dare to suggest to superintendents, supervisors, principals, and thoughtful

teachers (who comprise the group for whom we write) that Supt. B. C. Gregory of Chelsea, Mass., has said something on both spelling and primary grammar that it is worth while to study in a spirit of hospitality. The report of his investigations when superintendent of the public schools of Trenton, N. J., on the success of his schools in teaching spelling, and his own inferences drawn from them, appeared in the November and December numbers of this magazine.

A report of a somewhat similar investigation of the success of those schools in substituting good English for the grammatical errors that prevailed among the children in the first seven grades, will be published in subsequent numbers. Here, also Superintendent Gregory gives the grounds for certain convictions which are certainly founded in psychology and are in accord with common sense if not with prevailing pedagogical practice.

The publishers of this journal have a few remaining copies of a re-print of the spelling report which will be mailed to any address upon the receipt of ten cents each, the bare cost of the pamphlet. Any faculty of live teachers will find it a valuable study for what it teaches directly, and more valuable still for what it suggests. Those desiring the spelling pamphlet should order at once. The primary grammar pamphlet will be issued later.

We are interested in these reports for the reason that they are a scientific study of the subjects of which they treat, made with all the detail that science demands, and because they are presented in such good order and simplicity that everyone who shall read



them will not only understand them, but will see at a glance how to profit by the instruction given.

No one who is entirely sane doubts that our orthography will remain substantially as the standard dictionaries now declare it for generations to come, and that English will be taught in elementary schools, and will include what is known as English Grammar. Neither of these subjects is inherently more difficult than any other school study. In both the chief requirement is that there shall be concentration upon a very few essentials and a rigid ignoring of what should be left for a later period in the development of the learner's power.

#### Japan's Moral Education

In the former age religion and religious ceremonials were taught in the schools of Japan. Since those olden times education has had no connection with religion. In 1872 a law was promulgated having chiefly in view the introduction and cultivation of modern science. Secular morality has always been a distinctive feature of the Japanese system.

The awakening resulting from the diffusion of modern science resulted in a demand for some basis of moral instruction more definite in its statements, and parties arose which advocated, some a purely ethical basis, others the teachings of Confucius, others those of Buddha, and others, of Christianity. The conservative party objected to any change from the old regime.

In 1890 the Emperor issued the following order or rescript on education

which became at once the law of the empire and a uniform basis of moral teaching:

*"Know ye, Our Subjects:*

Our Imperial Ancestors have founded Our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting and have deeply and firmly implanted virtue; our subjects ever united in loyalty and filial piety have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of Our Empire, and herein also lies the source of Our education. Ye, Our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation; extend your benevolence to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop intellectual faculties and perfect moral powers; furthermore advance public good and promote common interest; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws; should emergency arise, offer yourselves courageously to the State; and thus guard and maintain the prosperity of Our Imperial Throne coeval with heaven and earth. So shall ye not only be Our good and faithful subjects but render illustrious the best traditions of your forefathers.

The Way here set forth is indeed the teaching bequeathed by Our Imperial Ancestors to be observed alike by Their Descendants and subjects, infallible for all ages and true in all places. It is Our wish to lay to heart in all reverence, in common with you, Our subjects, that we may all thus attain to the same virtue.

The 30th day of the 10th month of the 23rd year of Meiji."

(Imperial Sign Manual. Imperial Seal.)

The Japanese, as yet, take their government seriously and the voice of the emperor is to them the voice of God. Implicit obedience to this law in the education of the people will account for much in the Japanese that appears phenomenal. In Japan there is one moral law for the emperor and the subject; the rich and the poor; the powerful and the weak. America should go to school to Japan for certain specific courses of training.

## HOW LITERATURE MAKES FOR EFFECTIVE LIVING.

IDA S. SIMONSON.

NOTE.—At the meeting of the Western Section of the Northern Illinois Teachers' Association held at Moline October 26, the following resolution was adopted:

"Resolved, That in consideration of the exceptional excellence of the paper presented by Miss Ida S. Simonson, we recommend that arrangements be made by our executive committee for its publication and distribution to members of the association."

In accordance with the above resolution the committee have arranged with SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION for its publication in this issue, and a copy will be sent to each member.—EDITORS.

To know, in very truth, what effective living is, one must first know the meaning of life and the interpretation of some of its manifold mysteries—a knowledge which has been the goal of the yearning of the centuries, and which is still the haunting problem of philosophy today. Yet the words, effective living, have to us an apparent and a vital meaning. They may suggest the ability to achieve certain objective ends. To live effectively one must be able to earn a livelihood and to be a determining influence in the affairs of a community, perhaps of the world at large. But every community shows how ineffective living that is merely this may be when tested by a standard other than that of material comfort and power over men and affairs. To live effectively is not only to live the life of outward achievement; it is also to live richly and fully the free inner life of the spirit. The effective life is the life of aspiration and courage, of mental and spiritual triumph, and of joy by the way. It is the life that is thoroughly alive, to itself and to all things about; that finds delight and interest in the great common world,—“a day's treasure in a portion of the rainbow or a bit of stardust caught,”—a philosophy in a dusty flower by the wayside, or a gospel of kindness and an ideal of manhood in the hard hand and seamed face of a toiler. It is the resourceful life that is not dependent on conditions of prosperity or surroundings and events of intrinsic interest, but that finds within itself the sources of its joy. To be able to greet each morning with courage and each night with peace, to find somewhat of honor and gladness in the honest work of the day,—perhaps to be able, with Thoreau, to live one's life, whatever it be, “to the very core and rind,” is to possess one secret of effective living. And it means, furthermore, a large freedom in living. One must possess the ability to live where one's work is, yet beyond

it; in one's time, yet above it. It means progressive living and the power of self education. It means a larger world each day with greater power to do; a warmer heart and quicker sympathies. Most of all, it means increasing usefulness—more and more a force that makes for righteousness. And it is for effective living in this full sense, as well as in the limited sense of objective achievement, that all the forces of the school should work.

What the school aims to do in the teaching of literature is to develop the habit of reading for other than practical purposes, of reading that which we call literature because it has outlived the generation in which it came to be, that lives on through the generations after with perennial significance because it embodies something of imperishable truth and beauty, because it is, in poetic phrase, "the breath and finer spirit of all knowledge,"—because it interprets life and expresses the truth and passion of life with perfection of form.

We know that the boy or girl who acquires a taste for such reading is so far gaining entrance into the world of the ideal which literature shares with all great art. But we need not so limit its usefulness. By no means is it evident that the taste for literature has no service in what we call "practical living." There are more ready and more accurate ways than through literature of getting facts worth while, for it is not the purpose of literature to give information. But when one is in need of certain facts given with concreteness and reality, of seeing those facts live and of living with them and getting an interpretation of them, one must go to literature, to the great books that have been epoch making books in the social history of the world. Long lists of accurate statistics of the conditions of the poor in cities, of the ways of criminals and the outcast portion of humanity, of how the justice of courts may become injustice and the law make criminals, have little meaning beside the meaning that comes home to one with a shock in living the lives of the miserable in Victor Hugo's great novel. The degradation of Fantine, the haunting misery of little Cosette, the horror of the cruelty of Thenardier, the machine-like vigilance of the hound of the law, the hunted life of Jean Valjean—all are real as life itself; and we rise from such reading not only with "emotion purified through pity and fear," but with new knowledge and with new power of interpretation which help to clarify our vision as we read the

morning paper or walk through the slums of a great city. Such a book is a social document. So is Lamb's essay in praise of chimney sweeps, or Mrs. Browning's poem, *The Cry of the Children*. So are Dicken's pictures of life in prisons, of the ineffective charity of the work house and the alms house and of the grotesque education of "foundation schools." So are even Kipling's tales and swinging lines of verse that tell of social life in India. Though today we may look upon *Uncle Tom's Cabin* as in some respects an inaccurate and a prejudiced portrayal of facts, yet we know that the reading of that book quickened men's minds and sympathies to what was possible in a great social wrong and was no small force in accomplishing the freedom of a race. And this, not because men did not know the facts before, but because the book had in it enough of the element of real literature so that the facts were made fresh and lived before them, appearing as before a court of justice and interpreted according to the laws of human brotherhood.

Whoever is to have efficient share in the world of affairs can hardly begin too early his acquaintance with different types of people and life, that he may learn "to read men," as we say. But his observation from actual life can never be "wide enough or deep enough," so there is practical reason that he seek in literature his apprenticeship to life among men. There will he find the great "textbooks of human nature." Let him enter the old world of myth and fable and legend where are men and women and vices and virtues like unto those that walk the earth today. Let him enter Shakespeare's world with its motley company of heroes and saints and clownish folk. Let him ride with Chaucer's pilgrims along the pleasant road to Canterbury with the "verray parfit, gentil knight," the dainty priorisse, the ribald miller, the learned Doctour of Physik whose "studie was but litel on the Bible," the lawyer who "seemed bisier than he was," the poor parson of a town who taught "Cristes lore and his Apostles twelve," "but first folwed it himselve," and all the others that make up that fourteenth century procession, and he will know the types of men today. Then let him read the autobiography of Franklin and learn how one man with shrewd Yankee common sense, with common industry and common honesty, made his way among men, from the tallow chandler's shop and the printing office to stand before kings, first statesman of a great free people.

Life, we say, is the real educator. For this reason we

value the introduction of the manual arts into the school that the education of the school may be more truly the education of life. And for this end, too, we value the services of literature. Every story, every drama, almost every episode in literature gives, as it were, a cross section of life small enough to be viewed and interposed as a whole. Coming as this does before the pupil is in the confusion of actual life contact, it should mean something to him for poise amid reality when it comes. As he reads the story of Silas Marner he may realize how the treachery at Lantern Yard was not the end of things for the innocent or the guilty; he may see the poor weaver's miserly life at Raveloe as none of the village folk could see it; may look at their own petty round of living and know its littleness. He may see hope in the tragedy of the stolen gold and misery in the prosperity of Godfrey Cass, for he can see how things are working inevitably to their appointed ends that the "deed shall be to the doer and come back most to him." And in his evening's reading he has lived the village life of sixteen years and more, and seen the meaning of those years.

In following out the action of a drama, in tracing the influence at work upon the characters of a story, in seeking their motives for deeds, in endeavoring to comprehend the high thought of a great poem or noble passage of prose, there is mental development and gain in mental elasticity even as there is in the solving of a problem in geometry. And the mind works with what is rich in content, with new thoughts that liberate by enlarging the mental horizon. For them one might be willing to work, as Ruskin said, with pickaxe and shovel, as an Australian miner would for gold. Yet the process is a means of mental and spiritual recreation.

Such ennobling, liberating recreation is sorely a need of modern life that is so highly specialized. To the man who works at his desk with accounts all day long, or the man who stands at his piece work in the factory, there is spiritual recreation between the covers of a good book. A man in Chicago who works in an office in the stockyards, who has had no education beyond that of the common schools, found his evening's enjoyment for one winter in reading aloud to his boy the stately verse of *Paradise Lost* and in frequenting London coffee houses with Dr. Johnson in Boswell's great biography, making a glad fellowship with the book so that Fleet street and London throngs were familiar to him as

State street. And he went every morning with zest to his work, and in his work as in his leisure seemed to testify to the livableness of life.

More than ever today is needed "the man who sings at his work," who is a man in his work and not a machine. Every fragment of fine art means perfection, a bit of ideal beauty; and who ever looks upon it must receive a fresh sense of this perfection and beauty. If an artisan but gets something of this into his soul from a picture or a song or a poem, he must see more clearly the ineffectiveness of imperfect work and have a new standard of workmanship. In so far as he may carry this out in his work, is he becoming an artist. The attempt to do so makes him above his work. This thought it is which is at the basis of the intelligent social work of modern times.

But it is in the larger sense of full and free spiritual living, in what it means for the kingdom of heaven within one, that literature has its power. Nothing else in the school can so open out the world for the pupil, so enlarge his experience, as literature. The longing to know what is beyond the horizon of one's experience is strong in the hearts of men today as it was in the days when Ulysses went a-wandering, and they share in the old insatiable curiosity of the men who gathered about to listen to the tale of those wanderings and like children bade him "go on," in the eager bidding of the noble Alcinous: "Tell me therefore of those wondrous deeds. I could abide even till the bright dawn as long as thou couldst endure to rehearse me those woes of thine in the hall." And it was the hunger for new life and fresh experience that made the minstrel of primitive folk so popular, wandering poet that he was, yet a poet whose power we know from the quaint phrasing that pictures the poet story-teller,—“With a tale forsooth he cometh unto you ; with a tale which holdeth children from play and old men from the chimney corner.” In bringing to shut-in, humdrum lives a world outside, in giving the boy who has felt the call of the distant hills a chance to share in the life beyond those hills, literature has a power and a service. Dr. Cook tells a new Aladdin story of the way he can buy the Northwestern Railway with a dollar. A greater marvel it is to buy a book with that dollar, for it will take him where the Northwestern railway cannot go. The boy whose eyes are devouring the pages of a book in a corner of the school room or before the glowing fire at home, is journeying over

land and sea, athirst for adventure and noble action. In the brief hour he has gone into the great world of the past and had part in the living of centuries gone by. He has fought the dying fight of Hector or heard the bugle blast of Roland. He has seen the print of a bare foot on the sand of Crusoe's desert island or hunted the deer and cleared the streams with Hiawatha. He has sailed the high seas and sighted Spanish galleons with Sir Richard Greenville and fought the fight of the "one and the fifty-three;" or it may be he has gone a-hunting treasure with wicked, swearing pirates, yet with enough true-hearted men aboard to make things come out right. The world is spread out before him, a larger place. He is becoming a citizen of the world and of time. Only life itself can tell what this large outlook may mean for effective living.

More than this. If he learn the fine art of reading, not skimming, not analyzing, but forgetting himself in his reading, so that he is, in Stevenson's phrase, "wrapt clean out of himself,"—if he learn to read so, then does life open out to him in other new ways. To follow a good tale through, he must share in the lives that are lived in the tale. He must quicken to whatever joy or sorrow come to them, must love with their loving and strive with their striving, must have part even in their simple doings of everyday. Thus through the many types of life he lives literature becomes experience for him, experience that is broadly humanizing. This is true whether it be a fragment that tells of "far off things and battles long ago," some mediaeval romance of knightly daring and knightly worship, or a hearty English tale like the one of great John Ridd protecting his sheep through the long winter, seeking his dangerous way among the fastnesses of the Doones and fighting his fight out in the Quicksands, withal worshipping his beautiful Lorna and caring for his mother and sisters in his great-hearted, manful way. Or it may be a song in praise of lowly Scottish ways when the cotter's "weekly moil is at an end" and "the elder bairns come dropping in" to meet beside "the clean hearthstane" and "each for others' welfare kindly spier." Such scenes and such lives we may look upon in real life and look upon unmoved, but in reading of them the master's spell is upon us; his clear interpretation and his perfect phrasing have wrought their charm and we see with his vision. The common life about us has new meaning. More than one reader *has come home* to find the life that makes literature in his

own quiet neighborhood. I heard a young woman say about a person she had once been impatient with, "I like him better since I have read Chaucer." She was larger-hearted because she had come to an appreciation in her own experience of Chaucer's broad and sweet humanity, his way of enjoying men and women for what they are, loving them for their humanness. Literature has been and will forever be a mighty power for giving a true perspective of life and character, one which experience itself does not always give. In this is it one of the forces which we believe are bringing the day when, the world over, in the real life of communities as well as in the ideal life of literature a man shall be recognized as "a man for a'that."

This enlarging, humanizing service of literature it accomplishes not alone through its appeal to the feelings, but also through its appeal to the imagination and its development of the imagination. Such development is in itself effective for great ends. We can think of nothing of permanent worth to mankind but has come to be through this faculty of the imagination. All voyagers into the unknown, all great conquerors and great reformers, all helpers of men from the Hebrew prophets to the settlement worker in the slums, have been men of large imaginations, men who could see beyond the limits of experience. So Lincoln was the emancipator of a race, not alone because his mind was great and his heart was attuned to noble sympathies, but because he had the gift of vision and because his vision was true. The people who do the most to make life livable, day in and day out, are the people with imagination, who can see conditions from many points of view. "I am never confused," wrote Emerson, "when I see far enough." And long before Emerson had the truth been uttered, "Where no vision is, the people perish."

Furthermore, literature, through this development of the imagination and the capacity which it gives for living in the imagination, makes for personal resourcefulness. Last winter a little girl who was ill of a contagious disease found such a resource through her lonely, shut-in days. The summer before her mother had read to her *The Merry Adventures of Robin Hood* and now in memory they lived them again. The imprisoning walls of the sick room vanished and instead were the hoary oaks of Sherwood Forest with the sun glinting through their great branches. And there were Robin and his merry men—Midge the Miller and Stout



Little John and Allan a Dale in his scarlet cloak, touching the chords of his harp and singing a bold old ballad. They could smell the smoke of the woodland fire and hear the chatter and laughter and light-hearted jest. And every merry adventure they lived again with the loyal greenwood until the shut-in days were over and the real world was open to them. The mother said she knew not what they should have done for the loneliness of those days, had it not been for Robin Hood and his merry men. In other ways than the old minstrel meant has "Robin Hood been a good outlawe and done poor men much good."

Even more as life advances does the capacity for living in the imagination make a resource that is as a "house of refuge," what Spenser called "the world's sweet inn from care and wearisome turmoil." When the days of busy activity are over, when there is less of the novelty and of the expectancy that youth rejoices in, then is it that we know the comforting power of literature, when its great and lovely forms may pass before us and may be to us like the remembered brightness of Wordsworth's *Daffodils* that "flashed upon his inward eye," or the song of the Highland lass whose "music in his heart he bore long after it was heard no more."

But the noblest call that literature makes is its call to higher living. The *Vision of Sir Launfal* is accounted a positive moral force in the schools today, and the quest for the grail has a meaning in the life of the boy and girl. They who enter into fellowship with the circle of the Table Round, in service to the blameless king,—“true knight and perfect gentlemen,” know well the meaning of the high word, loyalty, and of that other higher, kindred word of reverence. And another thing they learn. Let them serve with Gareth the hard vassalage of Arthur's kitchen in apprenticeship to knighthood and they will learn what Gareth learned—the power of splendid courage and of buoyant hope; or in Stopford Brooke's fine wording, that "the youth who laughs and loves and rides for the right has all the world at his feet."

We are slow to accept the lessons of life as we live it and like the multitude at Galilee, we need the parable; and we will take the lesson in the parable or the story as we will not in the sermon. Sometimes we come face to face with a book—or it may be but a line of poetry—which reveals us to ourselves, and calls us to truer living as with a bugle blast. By reading Matthew Arnold's poem of *Self Depend-*

ence, a man who today is a man of power for a fine, large usefulness, was brought to his nobler self and made to turn about and live a new life of aspiration and strong endeavor.

In teaching the child to "read up" to great literature the school is teaching him to live up to great lives. We can remember now as we look back, that we got something besides the story of chivalry from *Ivanhoe*, something besides the pathos and merriment from *The Christmas Carol*, something besides the sweet home life of *Snow Bound*. We had come into the presence of new personalities, magnetic for good, and we gave them response as later we gave it to the new personality we felt in the lines that ring with Browning's militant optimism or that are luminous with Wordsworth's serene faith. Well might any master artist say as did Whitman of the book he made, "Camerado, this is no book. Who touches this touches a man."

And what noble personalities we meet among the creations in this world of literature. To know Colonel Newcome, great hearted, true hearted gentleman,—truest gentleman because his heart was that of a little child—to know him is to know the littleness of an ignoble action and the high worth of an unselfish one. To follow the hard road to London with Jeanie Deans and hear her pleading with the Queen to do a deed of simple goodness, is to thrill to the truth she utters that "when the hour of death comes, that comes to high and low, then it is not what we have done for ourselves, but what we have done for others, that we think on most pleasantly." And we draw back from the selfishness and insincerity within ourselves, in the presence of this simple-hearted Scotch girl, whose clear truth shines fairer than any wordly lustre. "This isn't poetry; this is people," said a boy in our training school in defense of his liking for *Snow Bound*, and the poem could have made to him no better appeal.

One thinks of the fine lines of Wordsworth—

"There is

One great society alone on earth,  
The noble living and the noble dead."

In this society of great personalities, whether they be those that once lived among man or that lived only between the covers of a book, all worldly distinctions disappear, for—

“There is neither East nor West, border nor breed nor birth,  
When two strong men stand face to face, though they come  
from the ends of the earth.”

It is a great and true democracy. Among them is no high and no low except with things of the spirit; no difference of place or rank or color. And so DuBois could write: “I sit with Shakespeare and he winces not; across the color line I move arm in arm with Balzac and Dumas where smiling men and welcoming women glide in gilded halls. From out the Cares of Evening that swing between the strong limbed earth and the tracery of the stars, I summon Aristotle and Aurelius and what soul I will, and they come all graciously with no scorn or condescension.” This nobility of the past and of the ideal world that comes back to us in literature, asks of us only that we be noble. To share in their fine companionship we must be other than ourselves. And we go out from their presence with the spell of their personality upon us, to do deeds beyond ourselves and to live above our littlenesses of yesterday.

And this is the service of literature—to give us something to live by; to clarify our vision and open out the world for us; to give us large liberation through noble ideas that illumine the days for us; to help us to see the world as it is and to sympathize with things that are out of the pale of our own experience, and yet live among the stars; to know better those who walk the dusty highway of life with us, and yet have companionship with the great and good of all time. When we think what a true book is—a thing immortal if aught of earth is immortal, because it contains some word of truth and beauty, of righteousness and of eternal hope, something imperishable from human life, some vision of the ideal,—when we think what it has been in the lives of men, how it has made possible many a noble endeavor and high sacrifice, then we too, with all book lovers since the world of literature began, thank God for books, and pray that we may use and not abuse our opportunity of opening up to youth this liberating world of literature, and through it helping to make the gift of the school to each child who comes, the heaven born gift of life, and of life abundant.

	<h2 style="margin: 0;">THE OUT OF DOORS</h2> <p style="margin: 0;">Its Life, Its Wonders and Beauties of Form. Its Call to Industry and to Sports.</p>	
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*Photographed by F. M. Fultz*

An Ancient Terminal Moraine of the Illiollwaet Glacier

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### *Foreword.*

In adding to SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION this illustrated department devoted to out of door life in all its phases, we believe we are increasing the value of the magazine as an aid to teachers. The greatest and the least among us, in our moments of exaltation or days of trial, turn to nature for the inspiration of her wonders, or for the healing balm which comes with the touch of her energies in renewing life. She is always opening the way by which the broken or artificially tangled strands of purpose may be brought into harmony with the common order of law and beauty. It is here that we get that glimpse of life as a whole which enables us to put meaning into its parts and to organize each day's effort in a way to make the ends of living *noble whatever the field of activity may be.*

Great teachers tell us that education must be this power of living. For growth in the power of conscious direction the child must first glimpse wholes, in their meaning and values as well as in their forms, and then attempt the analysis of the parts and a discovery of the relations and functions of these within the whole. The first essential for this kind of education is a *living* teacher vitally sensitive to the needs manifested by the child as his growth proceeds.

The author who would help such a teacher must write from the heart and out of a full and even enthusiastic experience of the things he presents. We have been especially fortunate in securing such writers for this department.

In Superintendent F. M. Fultz our readers will have a guide of large experience in the study at first hand of the impressive and beautiful as well as of the detailed information with regard to the physiographic forces at work in reforming the earth's surface. He not only has the interest and love of investigation in this field of study but has, also, the keen appreciation and technical training necessary to take a landscape picture which will tell the story as nature has written it. He will take our readers into some strange and into some very familiar places, and show the meaning of the records found engraved on every hand.

In "The Blue Grass Vacation" Mr. James Speed will show the joy of children in the free life of the country and also their keen interest and power for sustained attention and careful observation when once aroused to the meaning of the various activities about them. Mr. Speed is so much a child of the out of door life of nature himself that it seems almost a sacrilege to him to attempt to study this life at first in the separated and analytical piecemeal way of the old science text book. He would have the child know the trees, the birds, and the animals of his own environment as he knows every other friend; to be able to tell them by characteristics of form, or motion, or smell, and by their associates before he attempts to follow scientific bases of classification. His story will give us glimpses of nature as her lover, and not as her master or her doctor, sees her.

In succeeding numbers we shall have, also, a series of articles on flowers in the school and in the child's garden by Superintendent J. K. Stableton. No one has been more *successful* than he in making this beautifying feature of *life an organic part of the work of the school, and a means*

of more happy relations between pupils and teachers, and between the school and the homes.

The other features planned for this department will touch the play interests and perhaps some of the more serious relations of children to the life of the community; and everything we hope will bear the same stamp of genuine sincerity and earnest helpfulness for the work of teaching shown in this number.

G. A. B.

### GLACIERS OF AMERICA\*.

F. M. FULTZ.

#### ILLICILLIWAET GLACIER. THE GREAT GLACIER OF THE SELKIRKS.

Anyone who has made a journey over the Canadian Pacific Railway from the great prairies of Manitoba to the Pacific Coast has marvelled at the rugged scenery and been lost in admiration of the majestic mould of the face of the earth in that region. Everywhere mountains rise with snow-crowned tops into the clouds, and everywhere great gashes pierce the ridges, and mountain streams rush and dash and lash themselves into foam in their headlong haste down the steep slopes.

Looking out of the car window, one sees here and there, on a level with the railway track, even in the months of July and August, great patches of snow, and farther back the spread of glaciers coming down the valleys from the mountain tops. Many of these glaciers are within easy reach, and in a day's journey may be explored by anyone who is at all familiar with mountain climbing.

Perhaps the nearest of all, and the most easily reached, is the Illicilliwaet Glacier, which lies less than two miles south of the railway, and to which

there is easy access from the station of Glacier. The approach is up a narrow valley which the glacier itself has ground out in the ages gone. From the passing train the front of the ice sheet seems not more than an half mile away, and as one looks up the valley and on up the glacier itself, it seems as if one could reach it in a five-minute walk; but when one starts up the valley the trip is not so quickly made, although there is a good path and the ascent is not so very rapid. The five-minute walk stretches out into a half-hour walk; but everywhere on the way there is something of interest, something new, so that the trip is one of pleasure and not of tedium.

The valley is narrow, the sides rising abruptly to mountain peaks, some of which are 10,000 feet above the sea. Everywhere, high up on the sides of the valley and on the peaks, there are patches of snow. In front, the glacier rises up and blends with the snow field, which in turn, seems to blend with the sky. During the winter the valley is filled with snow; but in July there is a mass of luxuriant vegetation which

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extends even moderately close up to the front of the glacier. The pines and firs which have found a foothold along the sides of the valley in crevices of the rocks, and here and there even in the floor of the valley, show the effects of the great mass of snow which has covered them during the winter. Their boughs point downward, this position having been forced by the great weight of the snow during the long winter months. There are beautiful ferns everywhere, and even the rocks that are not constantly subjected to the wear of the torrent are covered with moss.

Following the pathway leading to the foot of the glacier, we cross the Ill-icilliwaet river a number of times. It is a rushing, roaring torrent, already a respectable river, although only a mile from the place of its birth. For it owes its being to the melting ice above. The path winds in and out among the great boulders that the glacier has wrenched from the mountain sides and carried down into the valley. These boulders show the rough usage to which they have been subjected. They are covered with scratches, and many of them have flat surfaces, showing how they have been held in the unrelenting grasp of the ice while they were dragged over the rocky bed. The stream itself is choked with the huge rocks, ground and scarred by the glacier and rounded and smoothed by the torrent. Between the boulders are lodged trunks of trees which have been torn from the mountain side by avalanches of snow.

The path goes up over an old moraine, a great ridge of material lying *across the valley*, showing where the

glacier, halting at one time and considerable period, piled up the waste brought down in its

(See the picture at the top of page 171.) The boulders in this moraine are so water-worn as those that lie in the torrent itself, but show plain scratches and ground surfaces in their rough journey on the

As we proceed on up the valley the trees grow fewer and smaller. Soon there is nothing but mere wood, which itself soon ends at the foot of the glacier. Then there is a bare strip of stones and boulders a few hundred feet wide before the glacier is reached. This bare strip of cobble stones sends the winter advance and the retreat of the glacier. For during the winter months the valley and region is covered with a deep snow, and the constant waste of ice is less than the constant advance, although the rate of movement is only a few inches per day. So in the spring, when the snow in the valley is gone, and the glacier is again entering the valley, the ice-front is found to be considerably farther down the valley than when the snow covered it in the fall. During the summer the waste is greater than the advance, and the front of the glacier again retreats up the valley.

Crossing this bare strip, the ice-front is reached. The ice is found to be resting on the bare rocks, the surface resembling that of the bare strip just crossed. Melting is going on, in July, and the rocks everywhere are wet from the dripping water. Here there the water collects into streams; and at the lowest point a large stream is flowing out :



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Present Terminal Moraine of the Glacier as seen in the Summer

**cave** which extends back under the ice-front. We go back into this cave and **find** ourselves surrounded by hard **blue** walls of ice; for the ice of the **glacier** is of indigo color. This cave **does** not extend back any great distance, and one does not care to remain **within** very long, because the temperature is near the freezing point.

Coming out of the cave and looking **up** the face of the glacier, we see the **surface** a dirty and uninviting white **from** the weathering of the ice and the **fine** dust that has settled there. We **wish** to climb up on the glacier, and **find** it so steep that it is necessary to **cut** steps, and to go carefully even **then**. If we wish to go far up, we **send** a guide ahead to cut the steps,

and follow after him. A rope connects us all so that should anyone slip the others will sustain him. This method of getting up on the glacier is exciting, but not so easy as climbing one of the mountain ridges alongside of the glacier until we are far up on one of its flanks, and then working out onto its face.

The snow fields from which comes the snow that makes this glacier are extensive and extend back many miles. Up here the snow falls, or is likely to fall, nearly every day of the year; and the marvellous whiteness of the field is in striking contrast to the dirty surface of the glacier. In crossing from one of the bordering ridges to the surface of the glacier, one must be care-



ful, as the piles of debris are made up of fine material which may prove as dangerous as quick-sand. These side moraines extend on either side down past the front of the glacier, where they are piled up very much after the fashion of the roof of a house. In some of the glaciers in this region these side moraines extend almost continuously around and nearly unite in front of the glacier, leaving only a small opening through which the glacial torrent finds an escape.

Glaciers of this type are called *Alpine* Glaciers because they abound in the Alps, and were first studied there.

There are many Alpine glaciers around Mts. Ranier, Baker, Hood, Shasta and other high peaks of the northwestern United States; also quite generally throughout the Canadian Rockies.

The valley through which the stream from the Illicilliwaet Glacier flows away has two forks, one contains the Illicilliwaet Glacier, just described, while the other is circled by several hanging glaciers. One of these hanging glaciers is the Asulkan, which lies in a trough parallel to the valley and high up on one of its sides. There is no true front to this glacier, but from many places along its lower edge issue streams which cascade down the valley side, and make it seem like one stretch of broken water falls for nearly two miles.

#### TIDE-WATER GLACIERS.

The farther northward we go, the lower down the valleys come the glaciers. Sailing along the coast of *British Columbia* and southeastern

Alaska, ranges of mountains are everywhere visible whose ridges are eternally snow-covered. Leading down from the perpetual snow-field, every valley has its glacier. Many reach only a short distance and, seen from the distance, look like mere tongues of snow projecting from the general field. Others fill the valleys for a considerable distance, only to melt away as the warmer and lower level is reached, and to send a rushing torrent down to the sea. Some fully emerge from their steep troughs, push out toward the channel along which we are sailing, and spread out fan-like over the great mass of debris and rock waste that the glacier in time past has torn relentlessly from the mountain sides and carried down to the sea. There the front lies like the segment of a great circle, separated from the sea only by a half-mile-wide fringe of forest-covered moraine. Should you climb up over this moraine and pass on to the glacier, you might not know where the moraine stops and the glacier begins, because the front of the ice is pushed out beneath the great mass of rock waste. Such an example is the Davidson Glacier Lynn Canal.

Such a glacier gives one a vivid realization of the great mobility of large masses of ice. Confined within a canon-like valley the ice-stream is frequently as deep as it is wide, but soon as it escapes its prison walls spreads out like tar, or some other thick viscous substance, until its width is many times its thickness. The spreading out hastens the melting, and only the larger glaciers flow for



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A Piedmont Glacier, showing how the ice spreads out to cover the Plane as the tributary Glaciers issue from the narrow canons and push in together toward the sea. The ice showing across the foreground is a floating ice-berg that is drifting past and it has come from a glacier further north. This picture was taken from the ship while sailing past the Glacier.

great distance after emerging from their confining valley walls. It results, too, in the rock-waste being more widely distributed.

But there are still other glaciers that push fully out into the channel and from which great masses of ice are constantly breaking away, and choking the channel that leads up to the front with huge floating blocks.



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A small Alaskan Glacier at tide water

#### THE MUIR GLACIER, ALASKA.

One of the greater and more impressive glaciers of the tide-water type is Muir Glacier, situated about one hundred and fifty miles northeast of Sitka. It was named from its discoverer, John Muir, who explored it in 1879.

The approach of Muir Glacier is up Icy Bay. Twenty, or even thirty miles away from the glacier, one finds the channel filled with the floating ice; and ten miles away it is so blocked that careful navigation is required to make the passage. Icy Bay is a long narrow channel once the bed of Muir Glacier when it extended far beyond its present limit. The bare rocky sides of the channel show the marks of the old ice sheet that ground along the course and few rocky islands rise in



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The front of Muir Glacier showing the ice wall from 300 to 400 feet high

the midst of the channel, rounded and scored by the same agency when they were covered to the depth of a thousand feet or more.

Long before the front of the glacier appears in sight, rumblings like the distant booming of cannon are heard. They continue to grow louder as the glacier is approached and are found to come from the forming of crevasses and the breaking away of great masses from the front.

A half mile or more away from the front the steamship comes to anchor, surrounded by icebergs and continually rising and falling with the swells sent out by the constant plunging of ice masses from the front of the glacier.

The front of Muir Glacier rises from 300 to 400 feet above the water and extends down beneath the surface

to a distance of nearly 600 feet, as shown by soundings taken directly in front. Huge masses are continually breaking away from the front, leaving the hard blue glacier ice constantly exposed. Great crevasses show in the perpendicular face, indicating where masses will soon separate from the glacier and plunge into the sea to become icebergs. On either side of the valley the glacier pushes on the mass of material accumulated from the lateral moraines. Climbing the sides of the valley at some distance in front of the glacier and working along the flanks of the mountain, one can go out onto the top. Care must be taken however, as the soil over which one travels is frequently but the covering of a great mass of ice, which beneath is slowly melting away, leaving caverns into which the rock waste above



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across Muir Glacier. The line of most rapid movement of the Glacier is shown by the masses of material carried along on the ice. Everything seen in this picture except the distant mountains is the Glacier the ice being hundreds of feet thick

When its weight becomes too great for the arch beneath to sustain, it flows across the glacier towards the west, no limit to the ice field until the horizon shuts out the view in other directions the mountains are at varying distances of from a few to fifteen miles. Down the valleys of the mountains comes small tributary glaciers which feed the great glacier which lies in the basin-like form very much as rivers of water feed a lake of water. During the summer, the top of the glacier is dirty and unattractive, the snows of winter have melted and dust and fine rock debris lie scattered over the entire surface.

Here and there lines of larger rock waste, which mark the medial moraines, are seen winding along through the field of ice and indicating where the main flow is, somewhat after the manner of the lines of drift-wood in the spring floods of rivers.

Passage over this field of ice is exceedingly difficult. Open crevasses meet one, completely barring or compelling one to make a long detour. These crevasses are frequently of apparently endless depth. Tumbling a boulder into one of these yawning abysses, it goes rumbling down and down until lost to both sight and hearing. Again one comes to a veritable lake, the water of the same deep blue



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A view on the top of Muir Glacier, showing broken surface, the medial moraines, etc.

as the glacier ice. This lake will probably be occupying a valley in the ice caused by one of the old crevasses which has closed below and yet yawns above.

Standing on one of the moraines out in this ice field one might think it the solid land, so great is the amount of waste and so profuse the rock material; but dig down through the debris a few feet, sometimes only a few inches, and the solid glacier ice appears.

One can also pass beneath this great glacier for a short distance; for out in front, on either side of the gorge, there is a sand beach running up to the very front of the glacier which is uncovered at low tide. Following up this beach, one can go in beneath the glacier, where a glacial stream emerges, to a distance of several hun-

dred feet. Here, standing on sand, one finds oneself surrounded above and on the sides by high walls that are freezing cold and to realize what it means to stand on a solid roof of ice above one 3,000 feet thick.

There are many tide-water glaciers throughout Alaska and in other parts of the world. Farther north on the Alaskan coast there are glaciers much larger than Muir. Greenland is practically covered by one great ice sheet many times the thickness of the greatest Alaskan glaciers. This great body of ice flows out from the center toward the north in all directions. Around the west and southeast coast, the waste of the ice sheet is so great that it is occasionally that the front reaches the water; but on the northwest and

and northeast coasts the ice wall almost everywhere reaches the sea, and the great icebergs are sent out which crowd the North Atlantic and which, in some seasons of the year, make navigation dangerous.

The south pole is surrounded for many hundred miles with a continuous ice front several hundred feet high, from which icebergs are continually breaking away.

### A BLUEGRASS VACATION.

BY JAMES SPEED.

**DEAR DOUGLAS:**—It is too bad that Thomas and I had to come out here to Kentucky by ourselves. I hope that old leg of yours will hurry up and get well, so you'll be ready for the football season in the fall.

We got out to the farm from the station in the big Jersey wagon. The train was late so we couldn't see anything but the moonlight on the big hills as we drove along. You ought to have seen the supper Thomas and I ate.

You know Thomas and I promised to write you a letter every day, or every other day, if we got awfully busy. It looks like we will be busy. Lots of sheep, cattle, horses, hogs, chickens, everything you could think of to keep a fellow on the go. There is a splendid pointer dog here that belongs to Uncle Edward. He is always at our heels. Of course, it is all new to us, and it would be to you, too. I wish Thomas and I had some way of making you see some of the things we are enjoying.

Hope that leg isn't hurting as it did before we left you the other day.

Your cousin,

JACK.

**DEAR DOUGLAS:**—Jack wrote you a few days ago. We wanted to write the next day but something happened. Oh yes, Uncle Ed was talking to us Sunday morning, and said something about his camera. It at once popped into Jack's head that Uncle Ed might take some pictures for us to send along with our letters. Say, we decided that we wouldn't call them letters any more. They are magazine articles for you to read, sure enough articles with illustrations.



The first picture he took was one of Jack and me (or is it Jack and I?) Never mind, I'll let it go as it is; it's

too hot to think about grammar now. We were out in the front yard making clover chains. The clover up in the orchard and out in the pasture is the highest I ever saw. The dog is Tough. He's Uncle Ed's hunting dog, you know. The cat in my lap is an old stray that came to the farm and just stayed. She's yellow. They call her Tom, but she has five kittens in the loft, in a deep hole in the hay. Their eyes haven't come open yet.

Every time, almost every time, Jack and I go away from the house and come back, we find old Tough waiting for us at the front gate. He is on the "stile-block" in the picture we are sending. It is made of two big, round, flat stones with funny lines on them. Jack and I didn't know what they were. Uncle Ed told us they were some old mill stones. They came out of an old water mill where he used to go for meal when he was a boy.



*Hope to send lots of photos with each issue of the magazine. The mag-*

azine is to be called "A Bluegr: cation."

Your cous

THO

P. S.—I was wetting the e when Jack called down the "Hold on a minute, Toss, Ur will have some photos ready in hour."



They are done. I like the the wood thrush a lot. If you at her close you'll see some funn ing things under her breast f Those ain't sticks at all. Jack thought so the first time we s out in the edge of the woods, on her nest. She's the tames you ever saw. We sat down a little while we heard her ma ing that call, or song. Did y hear it? It sounds like wat stones and a little bit like bells. you, it makes you feel like y smell the deep woods and see in patches between the leaves l in the tree-tops. Well, the otl came with a whole mouthful o and things; then a bunch of he thin necks came out all aro

mother bird. And he fed them. Then we saw that the funny sticks were just the quill feathers on the youngster's wings.

THOMAS.

DEAR DOUGLAS:—Don't know where to begin telling things. You see, things have been happening one right on top of the other.

It rained almost all of yesterday, so Toss and I didn't know what to do. Uncle Ed is the best we ever knew. He can understand a fellow our age better than anybody I ever saw. Thomas wrote you, or was it me, mixed again. Now I've got it. Thomas wrote you, or was it I, that Uncle Ed was taking pictures for the magazine. Oh! we sent you some in the last letter; but the best is he is showing us how to focus the camera. Of course, he'll have to do the developing himself. If we can learn fast enough you'll have lots of photos in the five weeks we are here.

Yesterday when we were out in the edge of the woods watching the wood thrushes feed the nestful of youngsters, we saw something. It looked like a little shadow at first. It was on



an old log in the bright sunlight. We moved up closer and sat still. Then we saw it was a tremendous spider, one of the big fuzzy ones that don't

make any webs. It was the funniest one we ever saw. Toss said it looked to him as if it had crawled through a patch of weeds.

"I don't see why you say that, Toss?" I said.

"Well, Jack, it looks like it was covered with burrs off a dock, don't it?"

If you'll look close at the photo we took of the spider you'll see how it looks that way. But when we got real close we had to laugh. There were no burrs at all, only about one hundred little spiders riding on her back. Toss says there weren't that many, but I think there must have been. We'll let it go at that anyway. I'm sure that's about as close to right as most magazines articles come.

By the way, this was to have been the first article, but I forgot and began a letter, so I'll let it go. The next one will be a real article.

I was going to stop but Toss says: "Oh, don't stop until you tell him about the snake."

Don't you remember we were talking about snakes last winter at school. We talked about them climbing trees, and I said big ones of course could; but how about little ones. Well, that bothered me a whole lot and I couldn't find anything about it in any of the books at school or in the library. Say, the country is the place to find out about all sorts of things, and find out easy, too.

It was the same day we saw the spider that I got hold of a little garter snake. He was just the right size to try if he could climb. We took him over to a big elm tree. Toss said: "He can't climb that tree at all because



he can't wrap himself around it like the pictures we've seen in the books."

We put him against the bottom of the tree and pinched his tail to hurry him up. He went up the side of the tree but he didn't wrap himself about it. Just look at the picture we took of him and then you'll understand. He got in between the rough pieces of bark and braced himself from side to side and climbed. When he got to a smooth place on the tree and we made him move up, he fell off.

The next is to be the first arcticle.

JACK.



## WINTER SPORTS.

*"In the winter time when the wind blows."*

Now the boys of all northern countries are having high times. Winter is here in real earnest and the snow will stay for several months. Many boys are shouting, "We never had so much fun before," forgetting that they probably went sledding, and skating, and snowshoeing, as much last January as they do now.

A great many of our readers live in parts of the country where the snow only stays for two or three days at a time and they are in great luck if ice, thick enough for skating, remains for more than a week.

But those who live in Canada, northern Minnesota, and Michigan, can revel now. Every stream and small lake is covered with a hard, glassy coating and the boys living nearby are *not overlooking* any chances for enjoyment. There is probably no greater

fun than to skate up some frozen for half a day, following all its turns and yet going much faster than a good runner could go who tries to make the distance "across country." The skater knows this, and, glides swiftly along, hums to his parts of the "Skater's Song," of pure excitement.

On many of the lakes of Wisconsin and other northern localities the young men have taken to ice-boating. This sport is rather dangerous unless the ice-boatman is skillful. But the chance that there may be an accident makes it more attractive to the adventurous. The ice-boat is a three-cornered frame fitted with a shoe or runner on the bottom of each corner. A sail and a tiller completes the necessary equipment. Under a good wind

iceboat will tear along at an amazing speed.

The boys in Michigan, particularly, have been for several years ardent lovers of the game of hockey. This game should be played on the ice, although the less fortunate youths of central and southern Illinois, Indiana, and Missouri, have to call it "shinny" and play it on dry land in the fall. In the colder northern climate ice hockey reigns on many small ponds, and from the time school closes in the afternoon until dark battles are waged by two small armies of boys for the possession of the "puck," which may be a battered old tin can or a round piece of india rubber.

Snowshoeing is the great sport of our neighbors to the north of us in Canada. Especially in Montreal, where many clubs have existed for years for the pursuit of this pastime, is the art of walking on snow shoes loved and practiced. Many long excursions are made through the country by groups of young men and, though fatiguing, the trips are healthful and vastly enjoyed. Those who have not tried it can only imagine how soundly the beginner sleeps on the night following his first day's walk on snow shoes.

The Canadian boys and young men also "go in for" tobogganning. The delights of sliding down a steep hill on a toboggan can be appreciated by those who use "coasters" and bob sleds, but the American subjects of King Edward insist that tobogganning is much the best. The toboggan is perfectly flat, without runners, and is slightly turned up in front. It is made of wood and is generally about four or

five feet in length, although longer ones are common.

One of the most thrilling winter sports has its home in Norway and Sweden. There the ski has full sway. It has been decribed very often, but as it is not very common in this country, a description is fastened in here. The ski serves the Norwegian lad in the same way that the snowshoe serves the Canadian. It is a long, thin strip of wood, preferably hickory, some five or six feet in length and two or three inches in width, with the front end slightly turned up. A trifle to the front of the middle a loop is fitted and into this the foot is slipped. The man who wears skis has to take a short staff with him to help him move along over level surfaces. The staff is also useful as a balance when the traveler slides down hill. Of all the ways of getting to the bottom of a hill in a violent hurry skis are probably as efficient as any and certainly they furnish an excitement as wild as anyone could wish. The two skis must be started right, that is, parallel to each other, or the unlucky coaster is almost certain to be tumbled headlong into the snow before he has gone half way. In Norway and Sweden the young men have almost made ski-ing the national sport and the constant practice gained through the long winter with which those countries are favored makes them expert.

To the south of them, in Holland, everyone is skating. The use of skates is almost universal in Holland during the winter months as the smooth canals offer an almost ideal surface. Young and old skate to school, to work, to church, to the city, —everywhere. The little Hans Brink-

ers and Jan Van Winderdams have no superiors in this particular sport. While Gretchen and Katrina can give any other girls a big start and then glide past and clear away from sight before their less experienced sisters of other countries have fairly started.

Yes, the snow which has covered the green grass has also covered all thoughts of summer pastimes. Football, which we boys have such difficulty in making our parents think is a gentle game, is not to be mentioned now; baseball is a buried memory

also; some of us may go to the gymnasium during the winter evenings and practice the dashes, the mile and half-mile runs, the pole vault and other track events, to keep our muscles in practice so that spring will find us better able to do great things. We will even play basket ball, indoor baseball and handball. But the stuffy, artificially warmed gymnasium is not so attractive during the crisp days of winter as is the outdoors. The snow calls us to winter sports.

#### Good Cheer.

Courage, pilgrim, as you journey,  
 Not because the way is bright,  
 Not because your hope awaits you  
 Just beyond your longing sight;  
 But because the way is narrow,  
 Fraught with dangers sure and  
 strong,  
 And you'll need your courage, pilgrim.  
 As you sadly limp along.

Cheer your brother as you travel,  
 Not because he merits good,  
 Not because he'll come to save you,  
 In the perils of the wood;  
 But because he, too, is weary.  
 Unsatisfied, too, with his lot;  
 Though he have what you most covet,  
 What he wants most he has not.

—*Florence N. Hamilton*

## Y NEED ENGLISH COMPOSITION BE A BUGBEAR?

MARGARET H. J. LAMPE.

## I.

(Continued.)

three days, during which Arthur shared the assigned work fairly and studied the boy. He was pleasant. Indeed, to my surprise, I expressed regret that he was taking my place. "It's punishing you for no fault of yours," he said. "I've got to stay, though it is on a fellow so near field day, my own doing. Seems to me my rights Miss W— ought to be this instead of you. I'd like to cite to you, but it does make a sort of sneaking when you do so casually instead of scolding." I'm quite willing to help you in your English, Arthur," I said; "but I don't know so much about what Miss W. does, but it seems you are willing to recite in her class when I'm doing my best for you. I don't like to refuse the Captain when he asks me to let you off tonight but I'll only be two more days till you can return to your class. Really I don't know why you don't behave there as gentlemanly a way as you do elsewhere, I've never seen you do so badly in the assembly room. In my own statement I know you don't make a disturbance in Miss W.'s recitation. Honestly now, what is the trouble?"

"Miss W. despises me and I don't like her very well." "But why do you like her? She is a lady and a compe- her who is trying her best to

instruct you, but you boys won't give her a fair chance." "Oh I don't know as I've anything much against her personally. I guess it's really *the English* itself, after all." Seeing my puzzled look, he continued, "I don't know that I can make you understand, but I'll try. In the first place, none of us boys see any sense in it. It's just a waste of time. We'll never have any use for the sort of thing we read or write in class. But that isn't the worst of it. All of us boys and some of the girls are sick of the everlasting gush about the beauties of nature." "Why, Arthur!" I said, "one reason we study great poets is that we may learn to appreciate the beauty around us by seeing it through their eyes." "Maybe there's something in that," replied the boy, "but I know it would be better if some folks used their own eyes, and then there's lots of sham about these people that have so much love for nature on their tongues all the time—I've seen it before but Miss W. is about the worst. Whenever in our reading there is a word about a bird or a tree or a flower, she begins to gush about how she shares this or that author's passionate love of nature when really she doesn't know or care any more about it than that desk does and I don't believe half the authors who write so glib did either. They just wanted pretty words."

"Miss W. is a college graduate, so

don't be hasty in underestimating her knowledge," I said gravely. "Well, I'll prove it to you," persisted the boy. "The other morning on the way to school she asked Tom 'What bird is that over there?' Tom said 'Why, that's a thrush.' 'Ah yes! sweet songster of the English hedge rows' says she. It was a catbird. Another time he told her a bluejay was a skylark. She was perfectly satisfied and began quoting Shelly by the yard. Anybody can stuff her anywhere along the line on nature, that she claims to adore so much. She asked when the osage oranges on the old hedge would ripen and whether they were as good as those from Florida. We told her 'Better,' of course. She talks so prettily about the gambols of the innocent lambs and didn't know a flock of sheep when she saw them. She went home with the Briggs girls on Friday to their farm. It was rich. She had been telling in class that day how lovely it was to have 'the clarion note of chanticleer usher in the rosy, jocund morn.' Well, Saturday morning the girls said she got up tired and cross because she'd been waked so early. Said she'd always read of the peaceful quiet of the country but she'd take Chicago for rest any day rather than the racket of all those animals. Her harbinger of day had become a blamed noisy old rooster in a hurry I tell you! And it's about the same with all the rest of it. She'll recite 'Flower in the Crannied Wall' *beautifully* but you just show her a wild flower or a butterfly or a curious stone and she'll hardly look at it. She despises us boys for having no sense *of beauty because we won't talk about what we do feel.* Tom knows every

wild flower in this region and knows all the birds and all about and the rest of us know a hundred times more about nature than she or her poets either. The trouble is right here. She talks so well on she doesn't know about or real and that makes us think it's the same with all her favorite authors; we get to hating them. Then she tries to make us talk or write about what we do feel and a fellow isn't going to do that except to a real friend any more than he'd talk his religion. I guess likely she means all right but she concluded drearily, "but she can't understand us a little bit and she thinks there's nothing in us worth trying to understand."

Of course I urged that a lad who had lived in a large city all his life could not reasonably be expected to know things familiar to country children nor indeed to understand them on a short acquaintance, etc., etc.

Every day, it was hard to keep from saying when that very evening Miss M. showed me an "Ode to Mother Nature," which she had just written.

Next day, much to my surprise, she sullenly announced "I have done a bit of my English." "Not?" "Because it's theme day and I can't write on the subject. I wrote a Winter Scene in Sir Launfal. I think our class have to do that." "Well, that's easy, surely. You've only to put your description into your own words." "But I haven't got any *own words* for half the things that's in it. I know the names of most of them and I don't know any other names for them. I'd like to use his words only put them in my own words. The more different I make

compared with his and if I don't see any use in my own thought any time." "What do you like to write about?" "Only Algebra." (That did not help.) "What do you enjoy aside from algebra?" "Nothin'. I don't do anything. You write anything I could write." "You don't want to try." "I don't." "The teacher's silence during the lesson eyed me narrowly and the evident hope that I was off entirely, I said very wisely to give you ready-made help you to a subject more to your taste, but you're not even sure of what your tastes are, nothing for you. Write this or any other subject *the work you must do.*" "I looked at me hard, then said, 'of course, everybody's doing something. Honestly, I don't think of anything else besides the last practice before the game and I'm not in it because of English.'" "Go to D. last Saturday?"

I asked. "Yes, and we had a dandy time." "I was not there but I'd like to hear all about it. Couldn't you write me a description of the day's trip?" "Why yes, I guess so but that wouldn't be an essay." "Suppose I let you off on the essay tonight so that you can practice with the boys; will you bring me tomorrow morning a complete story of last Saturday? I'd really like to know what happened." "Where would I begin? Tell me how to start out," said the boy eagerly. "Begin when you reached the depot here, tell who went and then give the story of everything that happened till you got back to the depot." "How long must it be? A page? Two pages?" "Why, how can I tell? You must write till you've told it all. Long or short, don't stop till you get through. If you do this carelessly though, you'll write the required essay tomorrow."

In the morning Arthur handed me four pages of foolscap closely written in a small but very neat business hand. "I sat down to do it in a page," he said, "but there was so much to tell I couldn't make it any shorter. I don't believe I ever wrote so much in my life before and it came so easy too."

The description was clear, well worded, interesting and, strange to say, entirely free from the technicalities of the game. At recess I handed it to Miss W. with the remark that presumably she would prefer to grade Arthur's theme herself and I hoped she would excuse my having let him take a different subject. Her eyes opened wide as she glanced at the paper. "Four pages!" she exclaimed. "He usually writes about four sentences." "And how neat!" she continued. "It's really

divided into paragraphs too."

After school she remarked, "Why, that paper of Arthur's is just a splendid description. I was quite interested. I'd never have suspected he had it in him. There were no serious flaws in the English either."

"Arthur," she called, "Did you write this all yourself? It's fine." "Course I did. Nobody but us boys went and none of them would have helped me." "He's right there," said Tom, "we're all too mad about his getting himself shut out of practice this week." "I'm going to give you 95 on that," said the teacher graciously. "I hope you'll do as well in future." "Can't, unless you

give me subjects I know something about," said the boy as he walked off.

"Hereafter, Master Arthur will write good, long creditable essays for me every week. This proves that he can do it. I'll never accept any such poor stuff as he's handed in heretofore," said Miss W. In point of fact she never did get a good essay of any sort out of Arthur, but her successor Miss D., told me his compositions were always of fair quality as thought and usually well worded.

(The second article in this series will tell how Miss D. managed to make compositions a pleasure to the pupils in Arthur's class.)



## Within the School-Room.

A Department of Observation and Reports of Classwork and School Management Conducted by George Alfred Brown.



### Course of Study.

#### V.

#### THE IMAGINATION.

The conception with regard to the nature of human life which has been suggested in previous articles needs now to be a little further developed in order to show its bearing on the education of children in

terests and eventually in its purposes much of the life of the universe. Such an energy creates obstacles to the regular motor response to sensory stimulus by inhibiting that response when it fails to satisfy the ideal that exists as a sympathy or a social desire of the personality. In this view the obstacle which stimulates human development is one created by the self because of

maintaining the bodily or his new function arises out of the energy which is striving to extend the individual life so as to in-ship with all life. Man in meet the needs of his human t have the power to know the facts coming within the is experience in securing ing, and shelter, but any ill help him to understand f life. To the astronomer discovered discrepancies in hypothesis the facts with nebulous stars are of more than facts about changing commodities because his con-universal law are more in-is knowledge. To the child follow his impulses to serve content though his service is ue recognition, the story of or of the Lion and the the like are of more im-an "to understand why l pastoral people lead a mi-."

education the function of greatly extended and man rise from an attitude of to one of assured knowl-f consciously directed par- the larger life of fellow-f universal law. The end ducation will determine the l and the powers of the ich most attention is given. f human life now being requires that education de-nd in its function for ex-: life of human sympathy, , and aspiration, or, in the

common phrase, make men and women. Only on this foundation can an adequate understanding of the growth of economic and industrial relations be secured and the true human attitude attained in preparing for service in these relations.

Consciousness is both a quietly flowing stream reflecting pictures of every sensation or emotion or memory reaching its surface, and also a swelling current of thought with power to move mountains. When the pictures are absent the current is either uncontrollably turbulent or stagnant and choked with fixed images as in the insane.

The first necessity in the child's education is the strengthening and extending of the imaging power of consciousness. To the small child the objective world is a source of joys, of wonders, and of new experiences of many kinds. These he seeks to express in language and to do this he must of necessity use old imagery in such a way as to give it new meaning; that is, he must use language symbolically. This need interests him in all sorts of fanciful and imaginative conceptions from Mother Goose jingles to folk lore and mythology. Miss Wray and many other kindergarten and primary teachers have told frequently of the apt use children make of this imagery in expressing their feelings, when without it they would probably remain dumb.

The child of school age soon grows away from the merely emotional attitude of a personal relation and has need of power to express simple appreciation of things in their own rela-



tions. He has become self conscious we say. But perhaps he is, rather, conscious of the inadequacy of any imagery he is able to use to express the more delicate shades of emotion which he is now beginning to feel.

The new need for a means of expressing the qualities and relations of things in a way to show their worth or beauty requires a much more exact imagery and use of language. A few teachers in primary and intermediate grades have realized just what was required here. In the article following this Miss Wray gives some detailed suggestions for the kind of lessons that will help children who are beginning to feel the need of this power to express details of appreciation. If teachers are successful in giving this power they will be surprised at the added life and energy that will become available for the school work in third, fourth, and fifth grades. One more article will be given to the course of study in English before we take up other subjects. The article below by Miss Wray is used as a part of this discussion and should be read in this connection.

#### Language Lessons in Primary Grades.

##### II.

To train the imagination of the little child and at the same time help him to express his thoughts in correct language, many simple exercises might be given. For instance, a whole series of very valuable and very interesting lessons might center around the subject of windows, and I will suggest some *workable plans* that any primary teacher can easily use.

For the first lesson let the child draw a window, coloring the finishing to their own taste. It is drawn at the top of a sheet of paper leaving sufficient space below for two or three sentences. Then in the brightest and most entertaining way tell the following little story:

"Children, let's play this is a window in grandma's house. She lives in the country, and it is summer time. The window looks out over the garden where white lilies are nodding and red roses are red, red roses there, too, and pink ones just the color of cheeks. A little robin has built a nest in the apple tree by the window. There are four baby birds in the nest. The wind rocks the 'birdies' and Brown bees fly above the flow-ers. A white butterfly is fluttering over the lilies. Back of the garden is a hill, and grandma likes to watch the sun rise above it every morning. She looks through the window and she can tell me something grandma knows about her garden."

If you have told the story to the child looking through the pictured window as you spoke, the children will be eager to enter into the play. You have provided pictures for their fancy and even the least imaginative child will be able to give something in his own words. The answers will probably be something like these:

Grandma saw the white lilies nodding.

Grandma saw the red, red roses nodding.  
Grandma saw the brown bee flying over the flowers.

She saw the baby robins in the nest.  
She saw the white butterfly.

I should insist on complete sentences, **w**riting each on the board as it is **g**iven. Then let each pupil copy on **h**is sheet of paper the story-picture he **l**ikes best, and carry it home to show **m**other.

The next day, after the window has **b**een drawn and colored, the teacher **m**ight say:

"Yesterday you remember we talked **a**bout grandma's window and the **t**hings she saw in her garden. Today **o**ur story is about Teddy. He is a **d**ear little boy who lives in a great city. **H**is home is on the corner of two streets, and all day and almost all **n**ight, too, wagons and trolleys go **r**attling by, and many, many persons pass the house. When the day is almost over Teddy often sits by the window watching for his father. Sometimes while he sits there he sees the red sun go down behind the gray church **s**teeple. Sometimes he sees fluffy white clouds turn pink like roses. Sometimes he sees the bright stars **p**eep out, and the moon shine through the darkness. Sometimes he laughs when a little girl skips past or a little **b**oy runs down the long street. When **h**e sat there last night what do you **t**hink he saw?"

**F**or the next lesson let the window **b**e drawn large and wide and call it **t**he schoolhouse window. By this time **t**he boys and girls will be alert for the **s**tory which should always accompany **e**very picture.

"In Bob's schoolhouse the windows **a**re wide and low. Every stormy day **a**t recess the boys and girls sit on the **b**road window-sills and play games. **T**he woods are close by and they can **l**ook out and see many pretty sights.

Once Bob saw a little gray squirrel run up a chestnut tree. Sometimes he sees a saucy blue-jay picking seeds from the withered goldenrod. Rabbits make funny tracks in the white snow. There is an empty nest on the lowest branch of a pine tree. Some red berries shine out against the snow. A snow-man stands at the edge of the woods. Yesterday it snowed very hard. What did Bob see from the school room window at recess?"

Before beginning the fourth lesson give the children a four-inch square of red paper and let them fold two corners to the middle making a house, and after they have pasted it on a sheet of paper let them draw two small windows and a chimney.

The story may be as elaborate as the teacher wishes. The following is merely a suggestion:

"Children, this is Santa Claus's house. It stands on the top of a snowy hill where Christmas trees are growing. All around it are Santa's gardens and work-shops. If you should visit that strange place you would see queer fruit on the bushes and trees. Here in one corner by the fence stands the popcorn tree covered with yards and yards of pink and white popcorn, and close to the house are rows and rows of trees bending under a load of peppermint canes and baskets. Of course there are orange, apple and nut trees, and plants covered with candy toys. In the woods under the Christmas trees are Teddy bears, and fuzzy white rabbits, and woolly dogs and sheep. Down by the barn are the wooden cows and hobby-horses, while on the benches outside the workshops are hundreds of dollies, all ready for

little girls to hug. Santa came to the window a minute ago and looked out across the snow. What do you suppose he saw?"

The window for the fifth lesson may be drawn and the frame-work colored as in the first lessons. A little variety may be gained by pasting narrow strips of colored paper in the form of a lattice-work inside the frame, or simply drawing the latticed casement:

"This is the window in a fisherman's little cottage down by the ocean.

"The great waves come rolling in,—boom, boom, boom, over the yellow sand. Far, far out on the blue water is a little brown boat. If you look through the window you may see the fisherman himself rowing steadily. The sun shines on the rippling water and on the fisherman's brown face. Those little children on the sand are his boys and girls. They are watching 'father' as he goes away to his day's toil. When the sun is sinking and the white birds fly home 'father' will come back, too. Do you think they will be glad to see him? What will he tell them he saw during the long day? What will they tell him they saw while they watched at the little window for his return?"

The teacher will readily think of other plans for using the windows, and of course other windows might be suggested; for instance, the lighthouse window in a storm, the church window, etc., but I have suggested enough to illustrate the idea.

It will be apparent to anyone that helpful drill on the past tense of the *verb be* has been given, yet given so *entertainingly* that the child has un-

consciously assimilated the form. The work may be done by children in the lowest grades as soon as they have learned to read and it is surprising how many words are added to their vocabulary in this way without conscious effort on their part.

If holes are punched at the top of each sheet, pretty booklets may be made and tied with darning needles. They might have the title "Out of Many Windows," and a page could be nicely illustrated with a picture of a window cut from the advertising pages of a magazine or clipped from some story paper.

Too much of the writing may never be required from the children, but I have never known a child who was not delighted to write at least one sentence from memory to tell the story of the window made, and, indeed, in my experience their ambition has been to write their own stories.

The lessons may be given in higher grades as well, with the same degree of interest, and a broader outlook on the world may be encouraged by suggesting subjects, as for instance, "What the Eskimo Boy Saw from His Window," "Looking from an Indian's Window," etc.

There are teachers who object to the reproduction lessons of this kind, saying that they tend to deaden the child's original imagination. This objection is utterly nonsense. The primary child has a vivid imagination but it is undeveloped and its range is exceedingly narrow. The teacher's duty comes in when the child's imagination is trained and broadening it.

as well said, "The little child stands on the threshold of fairy-land." That is true, but someone must lead him over, or he will forever miss the magic sights and sounds that wait within, and it is the same with his power to express himself in language. The wise teacher will so aid him that he will never say, as I heard a boy of ten say the other day,

"Oh! how I hate, hate, *hate* language work!"

But do not expect too much at first. If you ask a boy of five to look out of the schoolroom window and tell you what he saw, in eight cases out of ten, unless the child has had exceptional home training, he will answer, "I seen a cat," or "I seen a tree," or some other object.

Now that is what some persons mean by originality. The boy saw the cat or tree and in his own way told you the thought that crossed his mind. They forget that undoubtedly he had other thoughts, too. Probably if questioned he could recall the color of the cat, what it was doing, etc., showing very clearly that not thought, but training in thought-expression, is lacking. Yet that same lack of training will, in time, deaden thought.

It would be possible, I suppose, for a person to visit Switzerland and looking from the summit of some majestic mountain see—a goat! But if the person saw that, and that alone, how incredibly narrow we should consider his power of observation, how inconceivably limited his thought horizon!

So let us not fear that reproduction lessons of the kind described will destroy the child's originality. Welcome the little story-pictures he thinks out

for himself, but constantly remember that one of the best gifts you can give him is the ability to express himself in well-chosen words.

ANGELINA W. WRAY.

#### Observation Studies.

##### SETTING PROBLEMS AND MEETING PROBLEMS IN SCHOOL WORK.

I often wish my words could be made adequate to the task of carrying a real picture of a successful bit of teaching to the reader. This month I want to describe a whole school having some six grades including beginners and seventh and eighth grade classes with three other classes variously advanced in the course between these grades. It is a country school. The teacher is paid \$1,000 a year now because the school is used by the Macomb Normal as an observation school for their students, but the teacher was paid by her district itself \$750 before taking this place. This shows her power to meet the actual needs of the school of such a community in a way to arouse adequate appreciation from the people as well as from the children.

The first thing that struck me as supremely good was the almost perfect unity of action between teacher and pupils in carrying out the work of the school. When one class was dismissed the next came forward and took their places as the others were leaving. Each knew the rather complicated program and every class seemed anxious for their turn with the teacher. Another thing was the teacher's watchfulness of the temperature and ventilation of the room.

There was heat enough but no special means of ventilation and the teacher, as the work went on, opened first one window and then another for a few moments thus keeping the air fresh in all parts of the room.

But the secret of this fine union of spirit and effort in the work was found, of course, in the teaching power manifested in conducting the recitations and in directing the study of the children. The class of beginners were learning words by connecting them with vivid images of the things named and, where possible, with play activities. By the close of the recitation they had in mind a little story that could be illustrated by simple drawings or paper cutting and the children were sent to a convenient table to work out these images.

The second grade class were reading an Eskimo story in which the Northern Lights were mentioned. To image this required some effort. As an aid the teacher had brought a glass prism and by placing this in the sunlight she threw the primary colors on the wall. As the recitation closed the children were asked to take colored crayons and paper at their seats and draw a picture of the Northern Lights.

The seventh grade class was study-

ing a geography reader and had a lesson on the life of some of the people of Europe. This recitation was soon joined with that of the eighth grade who had been drawing a map of Europe and locating the natural and artificial boundary lines between the different countries. In explaining these boundaries the question arose as to whether a water or a mountain boundary gave the most protection. England, Spain and Italy were referred to, also the crossing of the Alps by Hannibal and by Napoleon, and Napoleon's failure to reach England. But the supporters of the mountain barriers were not silenced and a debate was proposed for a future day, three pupils being selected for each side.

The reader will notice that every lesson closed with a problem of some kind left for the children to work out. The teacher's power to make these problems of vital interest to the children while connecting them also with the immediate lessons of the course of study is what gives life to this and to any school.

The Macomb Normal School is working on some very interesting problems in the organization and use of material for the course of study which will be presented in our next number.

## A REALIZED WISH.

BY MABEL FLETCHER.

Now there are down deep in every little girl's heart, strange fancies and wonderful dreams that are never told to parents, and seldom to teachers. But about some teachers, especially those with pretty clothes and a sense of humor, there dwells a sweet quietness that causes may a bad little girl to tell of the chewing gum in the baby's ear, many a good little girl to mention the eight ruffles on her new pink-sprigged dress, or the number of pieces of pie her brother ate for dinner.

Though she belonged to neither of these classes, being half bad and half good, Mollie sat one morning on a strip of rag carpet on the shady side of the house, and looked wistfully through the grey fence pickets into the next yard. There, swinging lazily in a green hammock, lay the divinity who in two more days, was to preside over the third grade of the Dumfreville school. Though she wore a big apron over a strangely flowered Japanese kimono, and had a red paper napkin poked carelessly through one of the coils of her hair, to Mollie's eyes she was beautiful. There was that about the quiet comprehensive look of the brown eyes, the quick twist of the mouth when she smiled that made Mollie long more than ever to tell of the dead doll down by the chicken coop and the mud pies baking on the tin roof of the old red shed.

From that red shed for two whole weeks Mollie had watched "Patty Leonard" as she had heard her called.

She had seen her take two pitchers when she washed the dishes, and rub their noses aggressively together; she had seen her wind the tea towel around her neck and pretend to strangle herself when a blue cup and saucer came crashing to the floor one day. This, Mollie had at first viewed with round eyes, then as the weeks drifted slowly by, into her little heart there crept a desire to be noticed by Patty Leonard, this strange new teacher-to-be.

So, sometimes, she sat on the edge of the old red shed and banged her heels and lifted up her face and sang of the babes in the woods, or the young lady who ate so many little green jerrkins she got all pickled inside. Sometimes she got her sister's zither and twanged its delicate strings, sometimes she romped noisily with the dogs, black Dexter and yellow Fritz, so that her mother often dropped her work and ran to the window to see what was the matter. But always Patty Leonard moved serenely around house and yard, and never once turned her quiet brown eyes toward Mollie when Mollie tried most to attract her attention.

Mollie sighed now, as she wriggled her toes through a fat tuft of grass. The world is a very puzzling place when you are a little girl, especially if your mother doesn't care to read and your teachers know you haven't learned the multiplication table. She had, though she had not realized it, given up all hope of drawing attention to herself by any noisy scheme her lit-

tle brain could devise, and now she was content to peek wistfully through the fence and wonder about the pretty Japanese kimona and the red napkin.

"Mollie! Mollie!" called her mother's fretful voice from the window. "You know I told you you had to go for meat. Now you come!"

Mollie scrambled guiltily to her feet and slipped into the house. So rapt had been her mood that she looked almost curiously at her mother, who, with a piece of cookie dough clinging to her sharp chin, was emptying pennies and dimes out of a black pocket-book.

For Mollie was big enough now to go to the butchershop alone. Every morning her mother tucked into her hand a quarter and a penny, and told her three times what to tell the fierce, fat man with the black moustache who stood behind a marble counter and cut up poor little pink pigs in such an off-hand manner. At first Mollie had been much afraid of this fat butcher; he had sharpened his knife so meaningfully and had said such vague and terrifying things about what good sausage that little yellow dog of hers would make. Later, when she had found that this was but a stupid habit of his, she ignored him completely, and always gazed with steady eyes at the candy counter in the adjoining room.

This morning, before she realized it, she found herself in the cool butchershop, her bare feet shuffling in the wet sawdust, and her chin pressed firmly down on the marble counter. The butcher reached for his biggest knife when he saw Dexter waiting outside *the door, and swished it through the*

air, but Mollie only reached for her cool package and trotted in next room to the candy counter. The counter was presided over by a lady with beautiful piles of blond and a green Mother Hubbard chatelaine watch; a very angry lady, who spent minutes and minutes helping Mollie choose her choice, though a boy in the rear of the shop banged his coal-oil can vic against a box, and a cross-eyed gentleman said "Damn!" and went out at the side door.

Mollie deliberated long between a heap of little licorice babies and a chocolate mouse with an elastic tail which to swing him. She finally chose the black babies, and made her choice eagerly to the door just as a long apron vanished into the butchershop.

As she walked slowly across the broad commons, her thoughts reverted to Patty Leonard. She had never before realized that school teachers had real homes and real everyday clothes, like common people until Patty Leonard's family moved into the house next her weeks before. All Mollie's previous teachers had drifted smilingly off to some unknown region in the morning and walked crossly back into the night.

She put the cool beefsteak under her arm, and opened the candy sack. She had forgotten to feed Dexter and Fritz that morning, so instead of allowing her meekly they ran over the commons in search of bones and reeled and snapped at each other until they found them.

Mollie crawled under the bar

fence that stretched across the south end of the commons, just as two stray dogs came up behind her. They nosed the beefsteak hungrily, and one of them growled a little before she could scramble to her feet. When she did so, and felt the strays tugging at her parcel, she gave a squeal and started to run. Now every doggie loves a beefsteak, especially after he has once smelled it, so that the strays ran too. Dexter and Fritz ran, and barked loudly and growled madly, for this must be some strange new game they had never played before. Then across the commons trotted a woolly dog and a curly dog, expecting a fight. When they smelled the beefsteak, they ran too.

So Mollie ran and all the dogs ran. There came into Mollie's heart a queer tugging feeling, and then her nose ached. When she looked around her heart seemed to stop beating a moment, then thumped so violently it seemed as if it must break her little body. For behind her came dogs, hundreds of dogs, millions of dogs—all the dogs in the world! Oh, oh, oh! They were biting her feet off, they were biting her arms off, they were biting her head off!

"Mamma! Mamma!" screamed Mollie, and in her terror hugged the beefsteak closer to her and stood stock still in the midst of the leaping, barking pack. Then she heard behind her a quick run of steps, and an authoritative voice saying, "Hold still!" A hand reached down from somewhere and plucked the beefsteak from her frenzied grasp, and threw it to the snarling dogs.

"Another irate parent to deal with, I suppose," remarked Patty Leonard grimly, as she unclasped Mollie's tense fingers from the front of her apron.

Mollie looked up through her tears. She had felt at first only a sobbing sense of relief as she wiped her eyes on the ruffle of her dress; now she began to wonder a little. Two ragged holes made by her own frantic fingers, in the brown paper parcel in Patty Leonard's hand caught her eye. She looked at them, then at their owner, her eyes growing big.

"Well?" said Patty Leonard, her mouth making a little laughing twist.

Mollie opened her mouth, looked up again at the amused face, then clutched her licorice babies closer.

"Do you—do you eat LIVER?" she gasped.



## COMMENT.

### SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

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GEO. P. BROWN, Editor

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THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL PUBLISHING CO.

BLOOMINGTON, ILLINOIS.

#### THE CHICAGO SCHOOL BOARD DECISION.

The Supreme Court of Illinois has handed down a decision that the action of Mayor Busse in removing the members of the Board of Education of Chicago was contrary to law and that those whose terms of service have not yet expired are legal members of the Board. The ground of this decision is that none of the statutes giving the mayor the power to remove officials appointed by the mayor, apply to the members of the Board of Education.

#### THE ILLINOIS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The state meeting this year was a complete success. A spirit of harmony and of earnest

effort to get together characterized all interests and every discussion. The program was excellent and thanks are due to Principal John D. Shoop, of Chicago, who took most of the burden of arranging it as a member of the executive committee. President D. B. Parkinson had an easy task in directing the deliberation. His president's address outlined broad foundations for educational discussion. Governor Charles S. Deneen made an excellent impression by his greeting and evident earnestness of purpose in the care he proposes to give to the educational interests of the state, though he did not seem very enthusiastic with regard to giving the educational commission increased funds for their work.

The great address of the meeting was given by Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, of Chicago, his subject being "The Nation's Hope and Danger." The benefits and dangers to the nation from immigration was his theme. He showed the immigrant coming with heart filled with hope and with ideals of a land of freedom possible only to one acquainted with oppression and therefore invigorating to the native born.

U. S. Commissioner Elmer Brown has given us a picture, in one of his addresses, of the great opportunity a polyglot school of foreign and American children affords for accomplishing the greatest purpose of all education, namely, an appreciation and understanding of one's fellows. The hope, as Dr. Hirsch puts it, outweighs the danger in our consideration of this problem.

One of the best discussions of the meeting was that by Charles W. French, of the Chicago Normal, on the adequate professional preparation of teachers.

The section meetings were a valuable feature of this meeting. They were well attended and were the only places giving opportunity for a general discussion. It would be too bad to discontinue these meetings as has been proposed.

Notice was given at the general session of a move to change the time of holding the state meeting to some time in October or November when it is probable a much larger attendance could be secured. This has been found so in Michigan and in Wisconsin where the fall meetings have brought out several times the usual attendance.

Among other resolutions, the convention passed one commending the governor's action in appointing an educational commission and one calling for an appointment of a committee of one hundred members of the association to cooperate with this commission and appropriating \$600 for the expenses of such committee. A motion to hold the next meeting at Peoria was tabled and the matter of the place of meeting left in the hands of the executive committee. The officers elected are

President, Edmund James, President of the University of Illinois, Urbana; First Vice-President, George W. Conn, Woodstock; Second Vice-President, E. E. Van Cleve, Murphysboro; Third Vice-President, Miss Gertrude M. Gregg, Pontiac; Secretary, Caroline Grote, Macomb; Treasurer, Charles Hertel, Belleville; Railroad Secretary, E. E. Roseter, Chicago; Executive Committee, S. B. Hirsh, Macomb, elected for one year to fill a vacancy; J. E. Wooters, Carlinville, three years; Board of Directors, F. B. Ormsby, Chicago; S. H. Bolin, Centralia; C. L. Gregory, Aledo; R. B. Templeton, Pinckneyville, and Miss Esther White, Highland Park; Member nominating committee National Educational Association, Retiring President, D. B. Parkinson, Carbondale.

#### A MOVEMENT TO BE ENCOURAGED.

A country teachers' association of Illinois has been organized, of which Miss Mabel Carney, of Macomb, is president. The association has issued a wide-awake call to country school teachers asking them to study some particular problem connected with their work. A number of such problems are outlined by Prof. F. G. Bonser and include such subjects as heating, lighting, seating and decorating plans, social improvement through parents meeting, entertainments, visits to homes, etc., consolidation of schools, games, opening exercises, and many problems in the course of study.

Charter membership can be secured by sending 25 cents to the president and filling out application blanks that will be furnished.

#### MAIL-STUDY DEPARTMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

Last summer a bill was passed establishing a correspondence school as a department of the State University at Madison. This establishes the crowning feature of the admirable educational system of that state.

Provision now exists in the state system of education whereby the large group of unclassified adults of all ages and all degrees of advancement is guaranteed a responsible standardized system of instruction which may be pursued at home through the mails. This work is being made largely practical. The artisan or the clerk may receive elementary and technical training; the professional men may utilize the new department for keeping abreast of the additions research is constantly making in every field of knowledge; and the teacher may earn a college degree, "learning while earning."

This establishes a new precedent for State Universities in extending educational services to every productive interest in the state similar to those so long and so effectively rendered by the agricultural colleges alone. This is one aspect of President Van Hise's interesting policy of "making the University the instrument of the state."

*To Our Subscribers and to Others who may see this number of "School and Home Education."*

Our readers have been very kind and even enthusiastic in expressing their appreciation of recent issues of "SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION." If you find this number of interest and value to you and worthy of your recommendation, will you not bring it to the attention of others who would appreciate it, also?

In this number Miss Simonson has a most inspiring paper on Literature. It embodies the spirit of the great teachers of all time and is a prophecy that the modern school will hold steadfastly to its primary purpose of developing the human spirit.

The articles by Miss Wray and Miss Lampe suggest details in practice. The story corner has a delightful bit of literature from Miss Fletcher again.

Our new illustrated department fulfills all of our promises for it. The writers are full of the enthusiasm of successful workers in a chosen field. They are teachers who have demonstrated the value to the school of the material they present. This department of sixteen pages is printed separately, also, and furnished for use in geography and nature study classes as supplementary reading.

To support a journal of this kind costs not only labor but money as well. We must have an increased subscription list to maintain the standard we have set. Help us to do this if it is in your power.

#### THE WASHINGTON MEETING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

A preliminary announcement of the program for the superintendents' meeting at Washington, February 25 to 27 has been made. The main topics for discussion are (1) The Saving of Time and Energy in Public School Work; (2) a symposium on, The Place of Industries in Public Education; (3) The Nurture and Protection of the Physical Well-Being of Public School Pupils; and (4) The School as an Instrument of Character Building. On Tuesday evening an address will be given by Hon. Willet M. Hays of the agricultural department on Agricultural Industries and Home Economics in Public Schools. On Wednesday afternoon the president will receive the members of the department in a body at the White House at 2:30.

Some of the names on the program are: Supt. S. L. Heeter, of St. Paul, and Supt. C. N. Kendall, of Indianapolis, for the first topic; James E. Russell, of the Teachers College, Columbia University, Prof. E. C. Elliott, of the University of Wisconsin, Charles H. Morse, Secretary of the Massachusetts Industrial Education Commission, Geo. H. Martin, of the Massachusetts State Board, and others for the second topic; Luther Halsey Gulick, physical director in the New York City Schools, G. E. Johnson of the Pittsburg vacation schools, and Thomas F. Harrington, physical director

of the Boston Public Schools, for the third topic; Miss Margaret E. Schallenberger, of the San Jose, California, Normal, Mrs. John M. Glenn of Baltimore, and Miss Jane Brownlee, of Toledo, for the fourth topic.

The new Willard Hotel will be headquarters. Some concessions are made by the railroads in the territory east of Buffalo and Pittsburg, and by the Southeastern Passenger Association. The Central Passenger Association grants a rate of two cents a mile each way to the Buffalo and Pittsburg connections and east of these points one and one-third fare may be secured on the certificate plan.

Washington should have the largest meeting of the department yet held.

#### ARRANGEMENTS FOR CLEVELAND MEETING OF N.E.A.

The citizens and teachers of Cleveland are actively supporting the very generous invitation extended by their Committee of Invitation at the Los Angeles Convention, and have already completed a local organization as noted below. The teachers of Ohio are forming plans to co-operate with Cleveland in making the next Convention a memorable event.

The presidents of the various departments met in Chicago, December 30 and 31, to formulate and discuss the programs for the Departments and General Sessions of the Cleveland Convention.

The Cleveland Local Organization is as follows:—

#### CITIZENS' COMMITTEE OF ONE HUNDRED TWENTY-FIVE.

Samuel Mather, President; J. G. W. Cowles, First Vice-President; Thomas L. Johnson, Second Vice-President; E. C. Baxter, Secretary.

#### EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

F. F. Prentiss, Chairman; W. H. Hunt, Chairman of Entertainment Committee; W. H. Elson, Chairman of Membership Committee.

#### THE LATEST SPECIAL COMMITTEE REPORT OF THE N.E.A.

The report of Committee of Seventeen on The Professional Preparation of High School Teachers is just issued. Reuben Post Halleck, Principal of Boys' High School, Louisville, Ky., was chairman of this committee.

This report will reach all active members of the Association in the Los Angeles Volume of Proceedings, to be delivered early in January, 1908. It contains an introduction, by the Chairman, Reuben Post Halleck, Principal Boys' High School, Louisville, Ky.; Joint Recommendations on Courses of Preparation for High School Teachers, by the Committee; a Short Course of Professional Reading for High School Teachers in Service, by the Committee, and eleven papers on the Preparation of High School Teachers, by the following members of the Committee:

H. M. Barrett, Principal of High School,

Pueblo, Colo.; Stratton D. Brooks, Superintendent of Schools, Boston, Mass.; J. Stanley Brown, Superintendent of Township High School, Joliet, Ill.; E. P. Cubberly, Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Jr. University; Charles DeGarmo, Professor of Science and Art of Education, Cornell University; Paul H. Hanus, Professor of Education, Harvard University; E. O. Holland, Junior Professor of Education, University of Indiana; C. H. Judd, Professor of Psychology, Yale University; George W. A. Luckey, Professor of Education, University of Nebraska; George H. Martin, Secretary, Massachusetts State Board of Education; M. V. O'Shea, Professor of Science and Art of Education, University of Wisconsin.

Also the following special articles by members of the Committee:

Requirements and Standards for High School Teachers, Frederick E. Bolton, Professor of Education, State University of Iowa.

The Professional Preparation of High School Teachers in Southern States, Edward F. Buchner, Professor of Philosophy and Education, University of Alabama.

Capacity and Limitations of Normal Schools in Professional Preparation of High School Teachers, John W. Cook, President of Northern Illinois State Normal School.

Professional Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools in Germany, Charles De Garmo, Professor of Science and Art of Education, Cornell University.

The Present Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools, Edwin G. Dexter, Professor of Education, University of Illinois.

Will the same Training in the Normal School Serve to Prepare the Teacher for both Elementary and High School Work? John R. Kirk, President of State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.

The report is printed in pamphlet form also, 125 pages, and can be secured from 25 cents from Secretary Shepard, Winona, Minn.

#### THE AMERICAN RHODES SCHOLARS.

The London *Times* of November 20, 1907, speaks of the Rhodes scholars who are attending Oxford University, as follows:

"Turning to the examination results in the Honour schools and for the B.C.L. degree, the record shows that 8 first, 17 second, 14 third, and 2 fourth classes were gained by the scholars during the year. This probably represents a fair average of success, but it is clear that there is still for the men plenty of room in the upper storeys. Americans distinguished themselves by taking 5 first to 3 won by colonials.

"We notice that in the Freshman sports for the present year the new Michigan Rhodes scholar has won no fewer than four firsts and one second, which must be something like a record achievement for a beginner."

#### A NEW BOOK.

The Public-School Publishing Co. has recently issued a booklet of some sixty pages which has the distinction of being the first pedagogical publication of the kind ever printed—

They have published a number of books on other subjects of which a similar statement could be made and their increasing sale from year to year tends to confirm the conviction that the proverbial conservatism of the schoolmaster is getting ready to admit a new modifying idea among the foundations of the prevailing process of teaching. This booklet is a statement of an educational doctrine in which the recently discovered facts of nature and of the soul, or personality, have been prominently recognized as important factors in directing the process of the education of the young. It is a skeleton of an educational procedure that fully recognizes the mechanical element in the work of the school while it gives that prominence to the free personality with which every child is endowed by the Creator and which is essential to the growth of moral character which true education demands. The child is a machine, and, also, a free personality in the germ. Whether the personality shall remain subject to the machine, or the machine shall become subject to the personality depends upon education. And, more than this, whether the personality shall choose the better when the worse allures him, or shall choose the worse when he knows the better, depends upon education. The battle is between the child as a child of nature and the child as a child of God: between the impulse of sense and the impulse of duty. This is the real question, the end of all other ends to be sought in the school.

The "Fore-Word" of the booklet may throw some light on the author's purpose in writing it, and the others that are to follow. The application of the thought presented in Part I to (1) the work of the Elementary School, and (2) to the High School will call for two additional parts.

The general title of these booklets is *Physiology and Psychology of Education*; Part I, *Elementary Education*, is ready and will be sent, postpaid for 25 cents.

## BOOK TABLE

**YOUTH, ITS EDUCATION, REGIMEN AND HYGIENE.** By G. Stanley Hall, President of Clark University, 380 pages, cloth. D. Appleton and Co., New York.

This book contains the practical and especially the pedagogical conclusions of Dr. Hall's studies on Adolescence. It follows the text of the chapters selected from the two large volumes on this subject with such minor changes and additions as are necessary to bring the topics up to date. Superintendent C. N. Kendall of Indianapolis has cooperated with Dr. Hall in making the selections that would be of most value for study by teachers. A chapter on moral and religious training is added which is not in the larger work.

No readers of these chapters can fail to be impressed with the wide range and great care

given to the study of all subjects related to the question of educating youth. Only two short chapters are given in this book to the preliminary studies of child nature, and of the muscles and motor powers. In general Dr. Hall's conclusions here are that some scope should be allowed to the child's instincts for primitive experiences and nature environments. Tales, from literature and tradition, of heroes and of primitive virtues will help to save children from the dangers of precocity in assuming the forms of our highly organized civilization. One of Dr. Hall's strong sentences on motor powers states that "thought is repressed action; and deeds, not words, are the language of complete men." In the child's brain the motor area controlling the hand is the most closely connected with the speech centers of any.

The short chapter on industrial education emphasizes the fact that this work has only a utilitarian value and does little "to mature or unfold the physical powers, and may involve arrest or degeneration." He believes that children should receive training in more than a score of industries in order to extend the range of activities involved and to increase the adaptability of the students.

The chapter on manual training and Sloyd is longer and emphasizes the thought training involved. The results should be "1. Ability to grasp an idea and embody it; 2. Power to utilize all nerve, and a wide repertory of methods, devices, recipes, discoveries, machines, etc.; 3. Knowledge of the history of the craft; 4. Skill in technical processes." Such results are not now sought. Not enough attention is given the scientific knowledge and the thought side. Dr. Hall emphasizes also the artistic and ethical elements in this work, insisting that "conscience and beauty" inspire the worker, as urged by the arts and crafts movement. The educational value of acquired skill lies in the power and freedom given to the attention in its use. "One stroke of attention comes to do what once took many. This shooting together of its units distinguishes the master from the man, the genius from the hack." As another deduction Dr. Hall says, "truly spontaneous attention is conditioned by spontaneous muscle tension, which is a function of growth—muscles are thus organs of the mind." This chapter shows how little has yet been accomplished in the full and right development of manual education. The two long chapters on "Gymnastics" and on "Play, Sports and Games," are very scholarly and contain many wise suggestions.

The last six chapters are concerned with the moral and social development of youth. The chapters on "Faults, Lies and Crimes" and on "Biographies of Youth" are full of carefully gathered and sifted facts. Many of the deductions for the care and development of children are brought out in Chapter IX on "Growth of Social Ideals." The small child wants to be saved by guidance from the fluctuations of his impulses that as yet have no well formed purpose. But the time comes when "the passion to realize freedom, to act on per-

sonal experience and to keep a private conscience in order." If occasions call upon the youth to act with independence and from the highest possible ideal motives he "develops the impulse and the joy of pure obligation, and thus brings some new and original force into the world and makes habitual guidance by the highest and best, or by inner as opposed to outer constraint, the practical rule of life." This is surely a reason for giving to high school students a share in the management of the order and social organization of the school.

The strongest chapter in this great book is the one on "Intellectual Education." It is a severe arraignment of modern high school and college education. It is a plea for more oral work in elementary schools, more objective work by which keen realizations of situations are secured. Yet less object teaching with appeals only to the eye, is wanted in all education. Dr. Hall says of our school youth, "If their psychic operations can be called thought it is of that elementary and half animal kind that consists in imagery,—they lack even the elements of imagination, which makes new combinations and is creative, because they are dominated by the sensory." Dr. Hall demonstrates, "that the soul of language as an instrument of thought consists in this non-representative element," by the facts of speech diseases. In the progressive aphasias, the words first lost are those of things and acts most familiar, while the words that persist longest are those that do not designate the things of sense. The aged Emerson forgets the name of his intimate friend but talks long of his beauty, truth, virtue, and happiness.

The most far reaching conclusion to which the reader is led by this book is that no teaching is sound that does not have the largest possible amount of heart in it. "As a man thinketh in his heart so is he." The essence of religious training is love and obedience. "If our love is deep, obedience is an instinct if not a religion." G.A.B.

**INTRODUCTORY SIGHT-SINGING MELODIES.** By E. W. Newton, 8vo., cloth, 42 pages. List price. 22 cents, mailing price, 30 cents. Ginn & Company, publishers, Boston, New York, Chicago.

The underlying principle of the music in this book is the illustration of problems with attractive, spontaneous melody instead of with mere notes. That is to say, every principle of elementary sight singing is illustrated in tunes which have the greatest amount of musical content possible, considering their simplicity.

The melodies presented are pure, simple, and complete. They have been approved by the best melodic experts, who were purposely kept in ignorance of the educational nature of their use, and that the child may grasp its meaning, each melody is phrased. Many of the selections are musical settings of carefully selected verse.

The book is intended to be used in connection with the *New Educational Music Course, by pupils of the second grade.*

**FRANKLIN'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.** Edited by Albert Henry Smyth, English, Central High School, Cloth, 16mo. 287 pages, with pictures. 40 cents. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

This is the latest addition to the Gateway Series of English Texts, one which should be read by every student. It tells in a clear and modest manner of the rise of a great man from obscurity to splendor, and contains lessons of encouragement which can not fail to inspire. The introduction gives Franklin's career and achievement. Notes furnish all needed help to the student.

**HERRICK'S LABORATORY MANUAL IN GENERAL ZOOLOGY.**

Herrick, B.S.A., Professor of Zoology, Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College. Cloth, 12mo. 120 pages. 40 cents. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

This laboratory manual makes the pupil to acquaint himself with actual observation with a typical mammal group, and to acquire knowledge of the processes and results of that type. The types selected may be readily obtained in any country. The directions for study are clear and explicit, and are so arranged that the pupil will have his observations clearly defined and data thoroughly understood. Directions for field work are also included. The book is bound with blank leaves, throughout the book for written notes to be made by the pupil.

**QUESTIONS ON COLLEGE ENGLISH REQUIREMENTS IN ENGLISH.**

The University Publishing Company, Lincoln, Neb., has issued a series of pamphlets of about 30 pages each containing questions on a number of English classics read in high schools. The list includes questions on Macbeth, Julius Caesar, Marnier, Ivanhoe and the Idylls of the King. Questions on other standard works are in preparation.

Most of the pamphlets are equipped with a very appropriate introduction. Each pamphlet has the one heading the questions. The questions which follow are arranged according to the chapter arrangement of the book treated and should provide both teacher and pupils. They have been designed to help the student gain a picture of the life of the times, the original novel or play treats; for a great master of fiction; some plot construction; a habit of interpretation; a lively interest in a work. As Miss Sara Vore Taylor says in her introduction to the questions on Ivar, "It is so much the most important that you must not let the question what you cannot answer, your t

# SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

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## EDUCATIONAL SURVEY.

### “Training for Efficiency.”

Charles W. French, the vice-principal of the Chicago Normal School, made a valuable contribution to the study of the school problem at the mid-winter meeting of the teachers of the state of Illinois, at Springfield. All education is for efficiency, he claims. Specific fields of effort demand specific training in efficiency. The number of these specific fields has greatly increased in recent years, and the demand for specific forms of training has correspondingly increased. Efficiency in some particular vocation does not, however, meet all the requirements of an efficient life. This fact bids us stop and reflect in our mad rush toward specialization in our educational institutions.

Education is entering upon the course that leads to its establishment as an institution in human civilization of equal rank with the secular and the religious institutions—the state and the church. Education is not a mere annex to the family, erected to perform some family function; nor is it a mere servant of the state to provide it with citizens. It is to become, rather, an institution, which is to grow out of the ferment of the present antagonisms between religious and secular life, which institution is eventually to bring the secular and religious life into harmony and formulate the law of all

social life, secular and religious. It is to be “the parliament of nations in the federation of the world” in which man not only as a *citizen* of the world but as a *child of God* shall be represented. Through it is to be realized the injunction, “Know the truth, and the truth shall make you free.”

Mr. French says: “Directly or indirectly the schools must furnish the remedy for the great and otherwise incurable evils that afflict society. They are not responsible for these evils, but they are under an overwhelming responsibility for the rectification of the individual life and its consequent powerful reaction upon society.”

“Efficiency in teaching is not an abstraction nor a theory, but it means efficient men and women who shall take the ignorant and untrained children and after a term of years turn them out into the world in full possession of themselves and with all their powers trained to service.”

The first element of efficiency, in the schools and in their product, is a sound body well under control of the personality:—a good machine. Soul efficiency means knowledge that gives a *broad* outlook, and ability to use this knowledge to gain more knowledge; ideals “of helpfulness, and an uplifting influence upon others; and a rational and abiding happiness.” Reduced to its lowest terms, efficiency

seems to be energy or purpose wisely directed. Purpose is active will-as-desire, and knowledge is its guide to achievement. The speaker declares that "never before in the history of the world have the nations bestowed so much thought, and time, and money upon the education of their children. Yet we have failed as yet to solve the vital problem of efficiency." One reason for this is that we have limited our efforts to the making of the machine to be used by the child in his education without training the personality—the purposive will—to make use of it. The personality is the motive force which moulds itself into a vessel of honor or of dishonor according as its ideals are high or low; and knowledge directs the force. Why will the school neglect the training of the essential thing, the purpose, because of its superior adoration of knowledge? The school fails in securing even efficient knowledge because the learner is stimulated by no earnest purpose and no conviction of the usefulness of the knowledge he is set to gain.

We take it that the author of this address holds that whether the school would give to the child efficiency, or give it to the college student, or to the university graduate, or to the graduate of the Normal School, it must follow one and the same method of procedure. Every personality is ever desiring to realize some purpose, noble or ignoble. It is up to the school to plant worthy purposes which the learner shall desire to achieve and shall seek for knowledge to direct in their achievement. This is what we mean by cultivating personal initiative.

**A Movement of Great Promise.**

The recent convention of industrial educationists in Chicago assembled for the promotion of a movement among people for industrial schools, from the schools for general education. Massachusetts has led off with the appropriation of a sum of money used in studying the question of organizing an industrial school at present centers of population in the state. As we understand it the object is to make these schools a substitute for an improvement upon the apprenticeship system of former years. This system as it now operates is controlled by the labor union, and the number of apprentices is determined by the wages. Its purpose is to maintain a standard of wages by limiting the number of competent workmen. The industrial school would seek to educate all who wish to learn a trade and at the same time afford opportunities for the education needed by every intelligent workman. This seems to open the way for the solution of a difficult problem.

The present public elementary school has all it can do—and more obligated than it is meeting—to conduct the child through the elementary school as to afford him the best opportunity for information and training in the elements of life that are the foundation of success in any pursuit. Manual training has its place in this primary period; but it has its place because of its value in promoting general education. It and kindred exercises of a physical nature were generations neglected in the school because the people did not know the intimate relation between the n

system and the spirit, or personality, which is the real child. The child must come into self-mastery and attain self-consciousness through his subjection of his nervous system to his control in the pursuit of worthy ends. The system of voluntary nerves is the first field for disciplines. We are beginning to learn what the real person can do in disciplining his supposed "involuntary" nerves to his will. This disciplining of the nerves—the controlling force of the body—results in a discipline of the psyche, and it is the shortest road to the psychic mastery of himself as spirit. The end of all education, worthy of the name, is the culture of the spirit, which is the real man. All else is no more man than is chimpanzee.

Now the contention is that the commanding function of general elementary education is the exercise of the psyche in the pursuit of worthy ends, and so place him on the highway of maturing into worthy character in the higher schools or in the school of social life. Any less aim is paltry in comparison.

If the serious work of training for the industrial pursuits can be relegated to an industrial training commission, as in Massachusetts, the control of the commission being independent of the general public school system, it seems that the first step has been taken toward providing for that special education for specific pursuits in life which the school for general education cannot do. There are difficulties and dangers in the way but it is the special function of the American people to surmount difficulties and circumvent dangers.

#### Teaching English and Spelling.

In former numbers we have published an exhaustive study of spelling in the elementary schools of Trenton, N. J. It was made by the then superintendent of schools, B. C. Gregory, now in charge of the schools of Chelsea, Mass. It is, without doubt, the most illuminating report upon the subject ever published in this country. The method of the investigation was rigidly scientific, and the revelations are suggestive in the extreme. Of course, there would need to be other like investigations in that and other systems of schools to give sufficient data for the discovery of a general law for all schools, but the results of this single study are none the less valuable on that account. It shows how each teacher can find a law for his own school. No one can now say that he has tried all methods of improving the spelling who has not studied Mr. Gregory's report. Since it was published in this journal the few reprints made by the publishers have been exhausted, but others will be made as the demand for them grows. If a superintendent or principal will follow Mr. Gregory's plan, and test his own schools in a similar way, he will probably learn what will be more valuable to his own conditions than is this report, and he will arouse an interest among his teachers which will set the entire corps to studying the problem. At least one-half the time now devoted to learning to spell, in four-fifths of the schools, is worse than wasted because of our crude method of teaching. We need to make a new survey of the route before again con-



acting the children over the old one.

The response that has been made to his spelling report by those principals who wish to have their teachers study it shows that publicity is all that is needed to stimulate teachers to a similar study of their own classes.

How to teach successfully the elementary schools to speak and write English grammatically is another problem. Superintendent Gregory has made an equally illuminating investigation of that matter by a similar method. This will appear in the two or three succeeding numbers of this magazine.

William Hawley Smith said once, in a communication to this magazine, that the teacher "should put the grease where the squeak is." These two contributions of Mr. Gregory set forth a sensible method of finding where the squeak is. His suggestions how to apply the grease are equally sound.

#### What Is Success?

Every human being is, from the beginning, a self-originating and self-directing force or will. This energy utters itself as feeling, at first; later as choice; later as judgment; and last as reason. These phases of its activity are all creations of the primal will or ego by means of which the human being comes to know himself and his environment.

The school receives this personality at the age of six years with all the accumulated experiences which have resulted from the reaction of the child upon his environment. He has responded to his environment spontaneously as it attacked him, and his asso-

ciations with the family have helped him to put such order into these reactions as are needful to union in the family life. The order of the family life is reproduced in the child, for the family is his commanding environment. That stimulates him in his purposes, his desires, and his methods realizing them. The family places greatest emphasis upon the child's purposes and desires—his intentions. The orderly achievement of these is important but not so vital.

This influence of the family is a socializing one but limited to the family. The child without brothers and sisters who are children is unfortunate. Family life is wanting in a necessary educative influence. He is apt to be handicapped when he enters the school. He has not taken the first step toward freedom best taken in the family, which is to regard another's freedom as well as his own.

The bottom purpose of the school is to put order into the feelings, the purposes, and the knowledge of the learners. It was once called the "discipline of the mind," more commonly "character."

From the beginning education had this end in view, in the mind of the master thinkers of the world, different methods of attaining the end have prevailed at different times. The prevalent slogan just now is "socialize the child." The main influence of family and society has been directed for ages toward socialization. "Character" is but another name for a competent member of society. The socializing influences today that were not so prominent in the past. They are a numerous class of industrial

not known before the recent harnessing of the forces of nature to machines. The mastery over these forces has made the vast accumulations of wealth of recent years easy, and ministered to man's love of power. Society is money-mad as it has never been before in modern history. Struggle for the power of wealth has taken the place of that for power of the sword, or of political influence, especially with Americans. Education is pandering to this greed for power by the over-emphasis it is placing upon that phase of education that leads toward wealth. A millionaire is more honored by society than is a man, provided he is not a miser but is a man of power who uses his wealth to increase the wealth of himself and others. The schools are not setting their faces hard against this social degeneration by making ideal manhood the goal of educational endeavor. They are sending out graduates devoid of high moral purpose because a high order of manhood has not been the standard by which their success has been measured. This holds good whether the products of our universities, our colleges, or our high schools are considered. But it is true as it has ever been that the highest order of manhood is sure of the highest success in any institution of society of which one becomes a member. Every one is the architect of his own fortune whether it be symbolized by a palace or a hovel. If the young of this generation could come through their preparation for life with the controlling conviction that the achievement of the highest order of manhood is the high-

est success in life, the gross evils and corruption of the present generation would be unknown to that which will follow it.

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Under a new regime  
**Superintendent** in Washington City,  
**Chancellor.** Mr. Chancellor was  
 chosen Superintendent of Schools only a few months ago. Washington now has a Board of Education elected by the citizens, which takes the place of a committee composed of members of Congress.

For a time there was harmony; then discord arose, and finally a change of superintendents was declared. There was evidently a misfit, but that is not a new experience for Washington City. There are not many superintendents in the country who would undertake to steer the school-ship of our National Capital between the Scylla and Charybdis of that strait. For years political influence on the one hand, and private advantage on the other have made the waters dangerous even to a seaman favored by the gods.

Mr. Chancellor is a scholar and a thinker. He is a man of unfaltering courage and of strong convictions, qualities that have to be tempered with divine patience, infinite amiability, and the wisdom of the serpent, to master such a situation. Our brother and sister nations—if we have any sisters—must not judge the United States by its capital. This is not France. The capital is not the nation.

We congratulate Mr. Chancellor if he has come out of it "with his hat."

## COMMON SENSE IN TEACHING ARITHMETIC.

BY J. M. GREENWOOD.

We have arrived at a period in the development of arithmetical knowledge when it is entirely proper to investigate how this knowledge as a science has grown up or come to pass, and how certain facts have been unfolded and are now worked; how others have grown old and decayed, been changed, or reconstructed, and some of them reorganized, so that the vital question now is, how should this knowledge be brought into practical use in its presentation to learners?

To be historical is our first duty before being predictive and before elaborating and forecasting results, but this phase I shall not attempt. However, since the appearance of Nicholas Pike's arithmetic, published one hundred and ten years ago at Worcester, Massachusetts, American authors and teachers have been diligently engaged in collecting, testing, relating, and combining arithmetical facts and their applications, but comparatively nothing has been done in interpreting the meaning or significance of these facts. The tendency to push out and to explore to the uttermost limits in this science, as in all sciences, should be balanced by that other and more important tendency to analyze and to classify the data accumulated. It is this latter process that I invite attention to in this discussion, covering in general two phases of the subject:—The teaching of Primary Arithmetic and of Common School Arithmetic.

## I.—PRIMARY ARITHMETIC

Experience has demonstrated that pupils should begin number work on the side of mere counting by concrete material, interspersed with enough abstract mechanical work to give vigor and energy to it. There is real danger in keeping number work too concretized. The danger is greater and more numbing when it is carried to the point where it is not used, the knowledge degrees will percolate through the learner's mind and become inert acquisition.

Instead of keeping a bare list of multiplication tables and exercises perusing these tables, including intricate fractional problems which are indefinitely multiplied and eviscerated, it is now done by some author who never the pupil or class has had a table by doing it and has had illustrative and practical exercises to test and fix this knowledge. It should be reasonably stable, a knowledge should be attacked without delay and applies to all phases of human life—dirt, animal, and vegetable—measuring, weighing, and counting which now engross so much of the time and attention of teachers. This remark applies with special force to getting the multiplication tables and similar work that should be learned by sheer will power rather

done by that long, unscientific process extending over half a pupil's school life. Briefly, then, the whole situation of primary arithmetical teaching can be summed up in this statement:—Whenever a pupil or class has learned one table, process, or method fairly well, let him pass quickly to something else. It should not take months to build up a crude concept in even a child's mind. Occasionally the skillful teacher will dig backward into the learner's past experience in order to ascertain how well his past experience may have been remembered. The teacher while standing at the present point of the pupil's attainments, is always testing old areas of knowledge as well as pointing out new and unexplored regions.

In the first and second years of the child's school work, he will, if he has been properly taught and given a chance, learn all the common tables of value, weight, extension, surface, capacity, and time, by doing and experimenting with them,—besides getting clear notions of whole numbers and fractions, and by comparing one number with another, he will have taken all the elementary steps in ratio and percentage except, probably, that of simple interest. The only thing to learn here is a term, *per cent.*, or what part one number is of another. This kind of work is simply laying a concrete foundation upon which to build a mathematical foundation. But if this kind of beginning work is carried too far, or continued too long, it weakens the pupil's mental powers, because he will habitually think in *things* when the primary object is to enable him to think in *symbols*. Some good teach-

ers never know when to let go of a thing of this kind, but hang on like the boy who depended on inflated bladders while trying to swim, long after he should have thrown them away. A table should be employed just as long as the pupil is learning it by doing it, but as soon as he can tell intelligently what he has done, and how and why, it is a waste of time to keep on digging at it longer. Going over and over the same thing is disheartening and the learner is fully conscious of the fact that he is getting nothing that he did not already know, except, possibly, some new combinations now and then that involve no new principle. Education is a continuous advance and unfoldment,—not a standstill business.

## II.—THE COMMON SCHOOL ARITHMETIC.

There is no other science in which the subject matter is so scattered and in such reckless and irrational confusion as are the subjects in our school arithmetics, unless it be our English Grammar. To illustrate,—we have Simple Addition, Addition of United States Money, Addition of Decimals, Addition of Denominate Numbers, Addition of Fractions, occupying five separate and independent divisions of the text-book, and the same contains in respect to subtraction, multiplication, and division. The discussion of one of these subjects, Addition, is equally applicable to each of the other three, and will apply with equal force to each of them. What is said in this connection is for the benefit of those pupils who use the common school or advanced arithmetic, although the suggestions can be followed as well a year

or two earlier in the course, since they presuppose a mastery of the elementary processes—of reading and writing numbers, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

In Addition of Simple Numbers, United States Money, and Decimals, the only new element is the decimal point, and that if not learned before, has already been used in writing dollars and cents in figures. Children in the second grade can learn to use the decimal point in writing numbers of a mixed character as well as when they are twenty years older, and they will do it very intelligently with a little practice. It is unnecessary, therefore, to make the addition of decimals or any other phase of decimal treatment a separate chapter after the preliminary drill in the first and second grades. A little attention to the decimal point is all that is needed. Decimals are added in the very same way precisely as are whole numbers, nothing more, and there is nothing new in the process of subtraction. It requires a little attention to teach beginners to read and write decimals, but they will like it. In multiplication and division, the teacher gradually extends the work so as to include the uses of the decimal point by counting the decimal places and then adding them or subtracting as the problem requires. Two or three illustrated problems will be sufficient for most pupils.

When it comes to denominate numbers, the new element in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, is the use of *two scales of values*, the first of the Arabic system already known, the other of our Tables of Measurement. From the beginning,

after the preliminary development drill, let problems in denominators constitute part of the regular exercises in the daily work. The idea now is to accustom the learner to think of additions as one addition, subtractions, multiplications, and divisions, each as an entire process, slight variations owing to the nature of numbers represented.

Thus, instead of spreading these subjects throughout the course of school arithmetic and in the more advanced arithmetical teaching, the matter should be grouped and arranged according to its nature, and all should lead to a universal principle.

SQUARE AND CUBE NUMBERS AND THEIR ROOTS.—If there is any space for putting a discussion of *square and cube numbers* in the back of the arithmetic, fenced off by themselves, the pupil will never find it out. Applications of these processes pertaining to areas and volumes may be postponed till later in the course.

As the pupil is learning the multiplication table, however he may be instructed that a number multiplied by itself is called a *square number*. There are twelve *square numbers* in the multiplication table and he should know when and how a number is called a square number by *unsquaring* it, he finds the number itself which is its root. With the help he will soon be “squaring” not only whole numbers, but fractions, then *unsquaring* them, or finding *square roots*. Similarly, cube numbers and their roots may be presented and learned. This beginning, at least, should be made in the second

later than the third grade of all our schools. When I have asked little children to square or cube a digit for me, understanding what I meant, they did it mentally, and with small numbers which are perfect squares or perfect cubes, they will separate each into its equal factors and tell me what they are. Thus all good teaching is continually looking forward as well as backward.

**AREAS AND SOLIDS.**—Areas or surfaces are measured by the rectangle. Since in practice all plane triangles fall under this species of measurement, economy of effort lies in the direction of bringing all surfaces into this category, instead of having the major part of them put in the back of the book under the head of *Mensuration*. In finding the areas of circles, cylinders, pyramids, cones, and spheres, there is only one new element introduced,—that is, the ratio of the circumference to the diameter of a circle. This value has to be learned and retained, and it is the only new element not previously included in the rectangle or triangle.

When it comes to the treatment of solids in Arithmetic, after the pupil has learned solid or cubic measure, again there is nothing new except the value of the *same ratio* to be considered. The right rectangular prism, involving length, breadth and thickness, just as areas involve length and breadth, is the measuring unit. From it we get the volume of the pyramid, cylinder, cone and the sphere. The discussion and presentation of solids should not be placed in the back of the text-book for the pupils to learn when they are almost ready to go to the high school, but should be mastered

early in their arithmetical work. There are properties of these areas and volumes that may be and should be postponed, as is the case of similar areas and volumes and the extraction of the roots of numbers that are not perfect squares or cubes, but the main, essential properties should be illustrated and taught much earlier in the course at the time I have indicated.

**PERCENTAGE AND ITS APPLICATION.**—This subject should be taught chiefly before the pupils ever take up a text-book. If I say, "6 is what part of twelve, or 18, or 24, or 36?" the pupils understand well what I mean. But if I say, "12 inches is one hundred per cent of a foot, what per cent of a foot will 6 inches be? 4 inches? 3 inches?" here I have simply introduced a *term*, a *word*, nothing more. After a lesson or two, using *per cent.*, *ratio*, or *relation*, the children will solve the mental problems given to them as readily and with the same facility that they do when we say,—"6 is what part of 12?" or what relation "6 is to 12," or "12 is to 6?"

In the lower grades all the various exercises in percentage can be taught to the pupils, and the term *per cent.* used, except in the subject of Interest which may be left over till the pupils are further advanced in their knowledge of arithmetic. Training beginners along the lines I have mentioned, will save at least two-thirds of the time now devoted to percentage and its applications.

**INTEREST.**—In teaching *Interest* to pupils teach one good method and make it cover all cases. Children should, through their "savings banks' deposits," learn how to compute Com-

pound Interest, and it will be time well spent if teachers will devote a lesson or two to "Wild-Cat Schemes of Speculation."

The underlying idea in all I have endeavored to present is to bring matters that are closely connected into groups, and to teach by and in groups, and save the learners from floundering in the interminable meshes of details.

TESTING FOR ACCURACY.—I put little emphasis on the form of the work the pupil does; so that it is neat, the steps connected and consecutive, and it can be read and easily understood by anyone is as much as should be required; the content is the important element. However, from the beginning of the common school arithmetic the pupils should be given methods for testing his own work as to accuracy, and as to time-saving expedients, especially in the four foundation operations by casting out the nines and other devices. Short cuts should always be encouraged in solving problems or in getting results, but these short cuts must be correct.

DATA TO BE REMEMBERED.—There are certain arithmetic constants that should be committed to memory and held ready for instant use; such for instance are the number of rods, yards, feet, and inches in a mile; the number of acres in a section of land; the number of grains in a pound Troy, and the number of grains in an avoirdupois pound; the number of cubic inches in a cubic foot; the number of cubic

inches in a bushel; the number of cubic inches in a gallon; the number of degrees in a circle, and how the day and year are ascertained, etc.

BOOKS TO BE USED.—For the first two or three years no text should be placed in the pupil's hands, but much concrete work and abstract mechanical exercises, written and oral, should be used, and the two should be about equally divided. This is the period for drill. At the middle of the Third Year, an Elementary Text should be taken up in which concrete and abstract, oral and written, exercises are combined. All preliminary work should be *decidedly sharp and incisive*.

This should be continued from one to two years, and then followed by a common school arithmetic under the grouping of subjects as I have already outlined. During the last two or three years the pupils should be subjected to a *tremendous drill* in a *good mental arithmetic*. This work should be done without the use of a pen or a pencil, and it should be what its title indicates—*Mental*, not ciphering.

THE UPSHOT.—By teaching these subjects along the lines I have marked out, from one-third to one-fourth of the time now set apart in our course of study for arithmetic can be devoted to other subjects, and the pupils will be stronger in their work, and will know when to use their arithmetical knowledge without headlines on each page, telling them just when to add, subtract, multiply, or divide.

## WHY NEED ENGLISH COMPOSITION BE A BUGBEAR?

MARGARET H. J. LAMPE.

Miss D. was a young teacher who had been promoted from the seventh grade to fill the high school position made vacant by the resignation of Miss W. Unlike that lady, she had not had the advantages of a college course, but native talent for teaching, several years training in a good Normal school, and enthusiasm for her work combined to make her a successful teacher. In the English classes she made the study of character and more especially of the motives back of actions her main purpose in teaching standard literature. She gradually induced free expression of opinion about them among her pupils.

For about three months I had a good chance to watch the progress of Arthur's class as I was usually busy with desk work in the room where Miss D. taught them. They read *Silas Marner* and then *Julius Caesar*. The teacher daily dictated questions as guides to the study of the next day's chapter or scene. These were discussed in class in the same order, so that the pupils should keep to a logical outline of thought and know definitely what would be expected of them. Fully half the questions called for careful consideration and an expression of personal opinion with reasons to justify it. At this the pupils were very awkward and self conscious to begin with, but their teacher was patient. She also encouraged them by showing genuine interest in their views, however far they might differ from her own. Moreover, she was very tactful in cor-

recting errors, both of judgment and language, without interrupting or repressing the current of thought on the pupils's part. In time the majority learned to express themselves freely, to defend their views with fair logic, and to take an animated interest in the opinions both of their classmates and of their teacher when she saw fit to give them her own thought.

One day she said to me, "I hope you don't think I'm trying to shirk correcting compositions. I have not asked this class to write yet for two reasons. For one thing, I didn't want to break in upon their reading lessons until they were thoroughly interested in '*Silas Marner*' and then I heartily believe that *oral composition should precede writing* and is really what, without knowing it, they are practicing every day in recitation."

Some time later she brought me a large bundle of compositions, saying, "I've thoroughly enjoyed reading these. They're fine and I'm going to tell the pupils so." The young teacher spoke truly. They were a pleasure to read and furthermore some of the girls told me later that they had enjoyed the writing and had been surprised at their own productions.

This is how a result so delightful on both sides had been produced. The class had read in "*Silas Marner*" to the point where Dunsey Cass has stolen the gold and goes out into the rainy night from the cottage of *Silas* with the intention of returning home. None of the pupils had read further, so they



did not know the fate of Dunsey. Their teacher asked them to write the next chapter of the story, detailing particularly the conversation they thought must result between Godfrey and Dunsey next morning when the former learns that his brother has come home without Wildfire.

Of course the power of expression varied greatly as it would in the case of twenty-five young people of any age or degree of proficiency, but all gave evidence of having done their own thinking and of having analyzed and at least apprehended the characters of the two brothers.

Most of the compositions were so good that I thought the class surely must possess exceptional ability along that line, even though they had not shown it before. In this I was wrong, as I proved to my own satisfaction later, when, in another school, it fell to my lot to teach a second year high school class who were to read "Silas Marner." They took so lively an interest in the quarrel between Godfrey and Dunsey, the sale of Wildfire, and the theft of Marner's money, that I told them about the enjoyable chapters written by Miss D's class and asked them to try whether they could do as well. Most were quite sure dialogue was beyond them. I told them frankly that in general ability they were quite equal to Miss D's class but I did not know whether or not they could handle such a theme as acceptably; that the assignment was purely an experiment to settle my doubts on certain points. Dismay changed to willingness at the suggestion that if the themes should not prove good, I would not record grades for them in the class-book. For

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"What fun it is to write a thi-  
teresting when you're excit-  
surprise of finding you can  
you never dreamed you could

Possibly some of my rea-  
like to read the essay that pl-  
most. Not a sentence has  
proved or in any way change  
The chapters written by seven  
pupils contained more of inci-  
evidenced livelier imaginatic  
so far were perhaps enjoy-  
when read aloud in class, but  
thinking this production is c-  
able in that, first of all, it sh-  
markable insight for a girl of  
to keep the characters so tru-  
author's delineation; secondly  
dialogue is couched in langu-  
lar to that used in preceding  
thirdly, the setting of the di-  
well proportioned and  
worded; lastly, the theme  
conceived of as a chapter; i. e.  
no introductory, summary, or  
tion; neither is an attempt  
complete the story or even the

## IMAGINARY CHAPTER IN SEAS MARNER.

The next morning, after having **carefully** hidden the stolen money in his room, Dunsey went down to await the coming of his brother. He did not know exactly how to break the news of the accident, nor how Godfrey would take it. He was worried about the money too, now that he had it he did not know what to do with it. If he spent it too lavishly, suspicion might be cast his way, yet how could a fellow like he keep money on hand and not spend it?

While he was thus deliberating on what was his best plan of action, Godfrey came in.

"Well, Master Dunsey, so you're back? And what luck did you have?" said Godfrey.

"Poor enough!" replied his brother, "In fact deuced luck. A little accident occurred which will be unpleasant news for you."

"A little accident!" cried Godfrey, "Now what have you done? Some more of your loving brotherly tricks, no doubt. Speak out, quickly I say!"

"Hold your tongue, or you'll go elsewhere for your information," retorted Dunsey, who was in no humor to be crossed. "It's no fault of mine if your stupid old horse stumbles and stakes himself. I did the best I could by him and had a good price offered me, much better than you would ever have had bid, for you haven't the brains of your accommodating brother."

Godfrey was pale and quivering at the end of this speech of Dunsey's and leaned heavily against the fire-place. He saw no way now but to confess everything to the Squire and take the consequences. Dunsey observed his discomfiture with increasing delight. Finally Godfrey said, "Well, it's just come to this, that the Squire will have to be told everything and you know what the result will be—all on account of your cursed idiocy too.—Any fool would know enough not to risk a horse in the hunt after he'd been offered a pretty sum for him."

"I'd reason enough for riding him," answered Dunsey. "Bryce bid a hundred and twenty on condition that Wildfire stood the hunt and came out sound as ever. So don't be so flush with your abuse before you know what you're talking about."

"It's odd to me that Bryce should make that provision when he knows Wildfire so well. And anyway if the beast had been ridden right he'd not have staked himself. I'll warrant you're not telling the straight of the story,"

continued Godfrey, glaring at his brother who was lazily sipping his ale.

"Well, it's no business of mine why Bryce made that bargain. I did my best for you and —"

"For me!" burst in Godfrey. "What you did was for yourself and a mighty mess you've made of it too. It's not I who have made way with old Fowler's money. It'll be the worse for you when the Squire finds it out."

"It'd be the worse for you if the old man found out a few things about you. But trust your devoted brother for keeping them safe. And don't bother yourself about the money," added Dunsey, assuming a careless air. "I'd a bit of good luck at the inn last night and I'll be happy to pay you the Fowler sum any time."

"Good enough!" cried Godfrey, much relieved. "The sooner the better for the payment."

"Hold on," said Dunsey, "you've waited this long, you can wait till this eve but remember it's on one condition that you don't mention the incident concerning Wildfire to Bryce."

Had Godfrey stopped to think, he would have wondered at this last sentence but he was too elated at the prospect of receiving the much desired money to really grasp its meaning. So he wandered into the garden to wait for Squire Cass.

HELEN BELTZHOOVER,

Oct. 5, 1903.

Aged 15.

Unfortunately I have no other essay of this set at hand. It may fairly be said however, that the other pupils threw themselves into the spirit of the thing to such an extent that all but one consciously imitated the author's style or, as one girl put it—"It took quite a bit of study and comparing to write the speeches not as we would talk to each other but as it seemed likely Godfrey and Dunsey would naturally say things and then of course we had to think how we would feel about them in their place."

The mutual criticism of these essays in class during the next two days was the most animated, searching and helpful I have ever heard in any school-

room. Strange to say fidelity to, or perhaps it would be better to say harmony with, the characters and language of George Eliot was insisted upon as the first excellence. One pupil who sought to shine by introducing some sensational elements was told that that was "dime-novelly" and that no good author would write anything so cheap and trashy—"Shows what you've been reading—A good writer can make a story interesting without stooping to that sort of thing."

The chapters voted the best by the class (and they really were the best) were read aloud before the school at the next meeting of the literary society. They were listened to with marked attention. Afterwards some one came to me with "Say, Miss L., just think! Some of the seniors say you're going to be to blame if us sophs get the big head and imagine we're young novelists. And we told 'em if it was so hard to write on one chapter and keep it true to what went before we'd never dare try a whole book where you'd have to make all the characters and all the parts of the plot hang together. Of course we did better than we expected in this one little thing but then everything was furnished to our hand and we only had to carry it on a little way. That isn't anything to beginning and planning and ending the whole thing." "I should say not," added a

classmate. "I tell you this has me to admire George Eliot and others as I never did before. Joining this thing ourselves has made what a wonderful thing a whole is, that is, if it's really a good mean when you come right down to think of it, there's an awful lot of Gee! but she must have had a better way to keep all those things in mind and make them fit in just right clear to the end in one story it took months to write!" "And then," the first speaker "somehow it comes home to you better when you work out for yourself by experiment than somebody tells you. One thing is true though. This sort of thing is good for us to make us stop and judge the books we read instead of swallowing them up as a story—I guess it will spare our taste for the sort of carelessly written books. Come to think of it, that'll be a good thing because we can go on enjoying things we can't read right along and so we'll have something else. Is that why we read famous novels in school? And suppose we'll ever get so we can read them right along and enjoy them without having to study them? Oh, I don't all like *Silas Marner* but I don't think we ever would have by reading alone, but then I guess we could do something with another novel by ourselves pretty soon if we

now. In the United States they extended in some places down past the middle of the North Temperate zone. The Rocky mountains, Sierra Nevada, Cascade, and other western ranges were covered with glaciers, and many of their canyons and gorges were ground deep at that time. After the glaciers melted away, rivers took their places and continued the work of canyon-making. But the rock-cutting of ice is different from that of water, and it is easy to tell where the former left off and the latter began.

The glacier-ground canyon has smooth walls. Where the rock is hard and compact, it is often highly polished, or contains scratches and grooves made by angular rocks dragged over it by the ice. It is usually straighter, and there are no sharp angles at the turns. This happens because the ice-stream is of considerable depth, filling up its channel and causing long-continued erosion at the sides. Then, too, ice does not move around an angle as readily as water, and the wear on anything that obstructs its course is heavy and constant. The walls are thus ground down so smoothly that after the glacier is gone, they resist water erosion and do not quickly become rough and uneven with jagged, projecting rocks and deep gulches. The floor of the canyon will be broadly rounded or nearly flat; never V-shaped. And it is not likely to have any perpendicular drops; but there may be many sharp inclines where the falls of the glacier were. If the glacier overflowed the sides of its channels, as often happened, the rim of *the canyon will be rounded.*

Where a glacier-made canyon out on a plain, there are fringed high embankments extending from the mouth on both sides, sometimes several miles, producing in the continuation of the valley. They are lateral moraines, and are made of material ground and torn from the sides of the canyon. Such embankments of lateral moraines are found where there is a very great quantity of this material. Frequently a morainic material is blended in with a shaped deposit at the mouth of a canyon, bordered with a corrie ridge, excepting where the stream has kept an opening for itself. One thing is noticeable at the mouth of a glacier-made canyon; much morainic material is only carried a short distance. Of course the glacier takes up the fine mud which is blown from the rock bed, and carries it even to the ocean; but all the heavy and heavy material carried or dumped along the sides of a canyon is dumped at the first opportunity.

Whenever the front of the glacier has remained stationary for any length of time, there is a terminal moraine. It is not unusual to find a number of these in one canyon, scattered at intervals, each representing a stage in the retreat of the glacier. They act as dams, holding behind beautiful lakes.

Boulders are another characteristic of a glacier-made canyon. They are found sometimes lodged or scattered along the sides; often on the floor of the valley; anywhere, in fact, where the glacier in its retreat has left



*Photographed by F. M. Fultz.*

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**BLOODY CANYON, EAST SIDE OF THE SIERRA NEVADA MOUNTAINS.**

(This view is taken from one of the lateral moraines shown in the next picture.)

Do the walls indicate anything as to the depth of the glacier that filled this valley? Walker lake is seen at the bottom of the valley. A number of low ridges seem to run across the valley, which suggest a succession of terminal moraines. They are caused, however, by projecting veins of hard rock which the glacier did not wear down as much as it did the softer rock between. A small lake lies behind each dyke that crosses the valley. Explain the U-shape of this canyon. Did water help to make this canyon or did the glacier cut it out of the mountains and leave it as it is?

**BLOODY CANYON.**

Bloody Canyon on the east side of the Sierra Nevada, near Mono lake, is a good type of the glacier-ground canyon. It is nearly straight and only a few miles long, so that it can be viewed as a whole from a single point. The descent is 3,000 feet in about 4 miles, showing that the movement of the ice must have been very rapid, and the grinding and scoring vigorous. This is easily believed when one sees the immense mass of morainic material piled up at the lower end.

In viewing the canyon from some distance below, one notes its wide, rounded appearance. The rounding of the rims has much to do in producing this effect. When standing within

the gorge, it is seen to be really much narrower than it appears from the distance. The walls in many places are found to be very high, showing that the glacier maintained its volume while confined within them for a period long enough to wear down this deep valley.

The stream flowing down the canyon is small. It is not doing very much rock-cutting, and scarcely nothing at all in carrying away the general rock waste strewn on the floor. It has cut a narrow channel, to which it confines itself, but not deep enough to drain any of several little lakes that are scattered along the canyon. These lakes are held back mostly by dikes, the rock of which is so hard that the stream makes little progress in cutting



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#### THE LATERAL MORAINES AT THE MOUTH OF BLOODY CANYON.

Did the glacier that deposited these great lateral moraines, as it pushed down this valley and out onto plain, melt rapidly on its sides as it reached the plain? Was the advance of the glacier slow or rapid? Did it push a great mass of material in front of it? Why does the position and relative height and size of the lateral moraine indicate the answer to these questions? These moraines extend out onto the plain for five miles. The one on the left is fully 400 feet high. This was the south side of the glacier. Boulders are left as they were deposited by the glacier.

through it. However, Walker lake, the largest, and the last one below, is a moraine lake.

The lateral moraines extending out on the plain are five miles long. At the mouth of the canyon they are fully 400 feet high, and a mile further down are still between two or three hundred. The trough between them is so wide and deep that the creek that wanders through it looks as if it were occupying a mountain valley. Everywhere along the top and sticking out of the sides of these ridges there are boulders, lying where the glacier left them so long ago. Some of them are as large as a good-sized room, and all of them are angular. They are scattered over the floor of the valley, too, and the bed of the creek is full of them.

But in the creek bed they are rounded and water-worn. Along the foot of the steeper walls of the canyon there is much rock waste. This comes largely from the action of frost which loosens the material from the face of the walls and sends it rolling down to the bottom.

In the Sierra Nevada and Cascade ranges and in the Rockies the ancient glaciers were so extensive that they not only filled the valley but covered the lower mountains, leaving only the higher peaks free and uncovered. They also extended over much of the northern part of the United States, even to the eastern limit. And wherever they were, they left behind them the effects of their vigorous scoring and grinding.

## A WATER-CUT CANYON.

A canyon cut by a river is usually narrow at the bottom, often no wider than the stream itself. If the surrounding rock is very hard, the walls rise nearly vertical. And where the rock is of about the same hardness the walls have few offsets and ledges.

If the rock is soft and crumbles easily, the canyon will be much wider at the top, or widely V-shaped. Where the layers of rock differ much in hardness, there are apt to be ledges and overhanging shelves; the canyon grows wider from the rock constantly falling, the stream is full of boulders, and large angular rock masses are strewn everywhere along the gorge.

The rim of a stream-cut canyon is angular, in sharp contrast to the glac-

ier-ground rim. Frequently there are overhanging ledges where one may stand out over the canyon itself, and from which an object dropped will fall hundreds of feet before striking. There are many places in the Grand Canyon of the Colorado where an object thus dropped will fall more than a thousand feet.

There may be abrupt turns in a river canyon. And where they occur the projecting ridge in the angle will be sharp and jagged. When the descent is rapid there will be waterfalls and cascades. Perpendicular falls are more frequent where the different layers of rock vary in hardness. When the rock is nearly uniform, cascades and rapids abound.

The material is widely distributed along the course of the stream. The weathering of the walls of the canyon by rain and atmospheric agencies reduces much of the material to fine particles which are washed into the stream and carried away. The coarser rock waste rolls into the stream, where it is tumbled along by the swift current. This continual grinding of one piece against another wears them away. Those of soft material will be completely worn away, while the harder fragments will have their angles rounded off and become cobble stones and gravel.

## SOUTH CHEYENNE CANYON.

South Cheyenne Canyon, near Colorado Springs, Colorado, is a good type of the stream-cut canyon. It is short and can be thoroughly explored in a few hours; yet the gorge is deep and shows long-continued and vigorous erosion.



Photographed by F. M. Fultz. All Rights Reserved.

**STREAM CUTTING A PASSAGE THROUGH A DYKE IN BLOODY CANYON WHICH THE GLACIER DID NOT WEAR DOWN.**

Does the water wear away the rock, or is it the sand and broken stone carried by the stream? What other agencies must help the stream by supplying it with grinding material?

Cheyenne mountain faces eastward, rising abruptly from the plain to the height of nearly three-quarters of a mile. South Cheyenne Canyon opens out through this abrupt front, cleaving it to the very base. It is very steeply V-shaped near the entrance, the walls there being of more compact rock; but farther in are places where the granite disintegrates readily, and there it widens out. In two or three places the granite rots down so readily that there



*Photographed by F. M. Fultz. All Rights Reserved.*  
**ENTRANCE TO SOUTH CHEYENNE CANYON.**  
 Does the steepness of this gateway, worn by the water, indicate that the rock was hard or soft?

are long slides of the loose material.

A creek still occupies the canyon; but, excepting in time of flood, it is no considerable stream and the amount of rock cutting it is now doing is small. However, it is still active in carrying away the finer rock material that is washed into it by the rains from the sides and from the upper part of its course. About a mile back from the entrance are the Seven Falls. Here there is active rock cutting going on.



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**SEVEN FALLS, SOUTH CHEYENNE CANYON.**  
 Is the rock harder or softer at the bottom of the falls than toward the top? Where should the rock be to so wear down that these seven falls united into one high fall?

We can see that the falls are caused by the stream flowing over a harder layer of rock. The combined height of the seven falls is several hundred feet. At the bottom of the falls the canyon is not so V-shaped like, but is more like a valley.

The canyon makes a number of abrupt turns, where the angle of the rock wall juts out boldly. From the top of the Seven Falls two or three sharp angle ridges may be seen at once. At the bottom there is no view of the stream. The water is so shallow at the bottom of the canyon. The varying hardness of the rock has much to do in guiding the course of the canyon.

What is true of this short ca



true in general of all canyon-erosion. There are rivers hundreds of miles long, the entire courses of which are canyons. Everywhere along them this erosion is going on. Somewhere along one of the tributaries a mass of rock falls from the rim or side of the canyon. It rolls and tumbles till it comes to rest in the bed of the stream. Already it has lost some of its bulk, for on the flight down the slope it struck other rock masses. In the stream it is allowed no rest. Sand grinds it away; other rocks roll over it and more fragments are knocked off. Winter comes and frost splits it asunder. Some of

the fragments are small and hurry off down stream. The larger pieces are knocked about and separate. The frosts of other winters find them and cleave them into smaller and smaller parts; sand and other small rock fragments continue to grind them. Soon there is nothing left of that rock mass but pebbles, sand, and clay, and much of it is a thousand miles or more away from where it fell.

Thus it is the mountains are cut away and shaped. Thus it is the rocks are torn asunder, ground to pieces, and scattered far and near.

Erosion effects are much more evident in mountain regions than on the plains and prairies, because gravity there gives ice and water an opportunity for vigorous action. But wherever they are present, on plain and prairie as well as on hill and mountain, they are carrying on their work. There are many regions of the earth that today are beautiful and prosperous because of what these forces did ages ago in shaping and transforming the face of the land.

NOTE—Next month the Upper Mississippi Region will be taken up. It will be shown how the surface of Illinois, Iowa, and adjoining states have been shaped by water, ice, and other agencies. There will be numerous illustrations from photographs taken expressly for this physiographic work.



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**RANCHERIA CANYON, HETCH HETCHY VALLEY, CALIFORNIA**

Why is this gorge being worn through so uniformly that the channel remains a steep rapids and is not cut off into falls?

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*Photographed by the Author.*

## A BLUEGRASS VACATION.

BY JAMES SPEED.

*A Try at a Magazine Article.*

Jack and Toss were always asking their Uncle Ed to tell them about when he was a boy. The other night (there I go getting off the track.) So one night their Uncle Ed said to us—(I'm off again.)

Dug, I don't believe I can write these like magazine articles after all. You see, I get so interested I go right ahead and write, "Toss and me." I'll write them like letter-articles, if there's any such thing.

Well, the other night on the big front porch, Uncle Ed asked, "Did you boys ever play robbers?"

We laughed as Jack said, "Oh yes. When we are home in town a lot of us fellows get together and play 'cop and robbers.'"

"Oh, I don't mean that game," and Uncle Ed laughed again. He's the greatest fellow to laugh you ever saw. And when he does, you have to laugh with him. Jack and I pulled our chairs up close to where he sat and asked him about this game he used to play.

"When I was about as old as you boys are I was almost crazy to go out West or to sea."

Jack poked me in the ribs as much as to say, "That's like us."

"Well, like most boys, I had to stay at home. But I just had to do something exciting. I was sure I could be happy if I had a cave to live in. The boys and I hunted until we found one. It was a splendid one, too, with a room five feet square, dry as a bone."

"Uncle," I asked quickly, "where is that cave, above the woods on the bluff?"

He laughed as he always does, and said, "No, it is back in my old home in Indiana."

When Jack said, "Oh!" in a disappointed little voice, he laughed soon more.

"We boys fitted it up in fine shape got some candles and made round stools and tables. When the weather was good we hunted, fished, and played robbers. If it rained we we



*Photographed by the Author*

ing there was no time to write. On the the clay bank that's above the "riffle." While we were sitting with our feet in the water, the kingfisher came with a minnow in her long bill, and crawled into the hole. She hadn't more than gotten out of sight when Toss jumped up and danced about and yelled.

"That's the scheme all right, all right. Why didn't we think of that way before?"

"What's the scheme?" I asked him.

Toss kept on laughing and pointing to the kingfisher's hole in the big clay bank above where we were sitting. At last he said,

"Can't you see what I mean, Jack? If a kingfisher, a bird, can build a cave and live in it, why can't we build one, too?"

Wasn't that like old Toss. We began to plan it all out as we sat there in the little willows. We will have to hunt around and find a shovel, a pick and things to dig with. You see it would't do to ask Uncle Ed for these things, because then he'd know about the cave. If it is going to be any fun at all it must be a dead secret. Good news! Oh, I forgot to write this is a day or two later, so much do-

way down through the orchard the morning we found exactly what we needed. The men left some tools where they were building a barbed wire fence early this spring. They are rusty but they'll do, I think. There is a shovel, a pick, and post-hole digger in the lot. We felt like Robinson Crusoe did when he took the things off the vessel before it went to pieces on the rocks. Did you ever see a patent post-hole digger? I don't believe you ever did, and this one is the worst I ever saw. Toss said it was more like an auger that you bore holes in wood with. We tried it in some soft ground and it worked fine. You turn it around by the big handle on the top and when it goes down into the ground a little way, you pull it out. That brings the loose earth out and you have a nice smooth round hole. We will try the tools on the clay bank some time tomorrow if we can get them down there without anyone seeing us. The country is simply great all the time.

Yours,

JACK.



*Photographed by the Author*

P.S.—Almost forgot to write we found eggshells under the apple tree in the orchard. You will think that things happen fast in the country. But I began this letter two days ago and told you we had found a crazy old nest there. Well, when we found the shells this morning we scrambled up. You ought to see the fuzzy youngsters that came out of those eggs. Toss has a picture of the birds; didn't know it was ready and wanted to surprise you. What do you think of them?

DEAR DUG:—Old Bill Harris, the fellow, the colored fellow that sheared the sheep for Uncle Ed, he said the other day:

"When you go out in de woods n'



*Photographed by the Author*

'long the aidge of de creek, you don't know whut minute gwinter be de nex'."

It's just his way of saying things are always happening out here in the country, and he's about right, too. This morning we went down to begin work on the cave. But we had to wait a long time. Uncle Ed was counting the sheep and lambs in a field close by. After he had gone back to the house and we were certain no one was around, we crept down along an overgrown fence, keeping under cover as much as we could.

On the edge of the orchard there is an old brush pile and as we passed it we heard a weak little bird voice saying, "queda-queda-queda." It said it over and over again. We sat down and waited and soon saw a little bird, a young one, because Jack said, "Look, Toss, look at that baby hair still sticking out on top of his head."

We forgot about starting the cave and got the camera and took his picture. I think you will say, he looks like a baby all right. Uncle Ed and us boys (or is it we boys?), grammar is hard at school but I think it must be all right for I need it all the time now in writing these letters. What I started to say was we all of us think it must be a young Peter-peter bird. Jack is yelling for me to turn out the light and come to bed.

Toss.

P.S.—Don't tell anyone about the cave. It's a dead secret.

## TAMPA ROBINS.

The robin laughed in the orange tree:  
 "Ho, windy North, a fig for thee:  
 While breasts are red and wings are bold  
 And green trees wave us globes of gold,  
 Time's scythe shall reap but bliss for me  
 —Sunlight, song, and the orange tree.

Burn, golden globes in leafy sky,  
 My orange planets; crimson I  
 Will shine and shoot among the spheres  
 (Blithe meteor that no mortal fears)  
 And thrid the heavenly orange tree  
 With orbits bright of minstrelsy.

—From *Poems of Sidney Lanier*. Copyright 1884, 1891, by Mary D. Lanier. Published by Charles Scribner's Sons.

If that I hate wild winter's spite—  
 The gibbet trees, the world in white,  
 The sky but gray wind over a grave—  
 Why should I ache, the season's slave?  
 I'll sing from the top of the orange tree,  
 Gramercy, winter's tyranny.

I'll south with the sun, and keep my clime;  
 My wing is king of the summer time;  
 My breast to the sun his torch shall hold;  
 And I'll call down through the green and gold,  
 Time, take thy scythe, reap bliss for me,  
 Bestir thee under the orange tree."

## FLOWERS ON SCHOOL GROUNDS.

BY J. K. STABLETON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BLOOMINGTON, ILL.

## I.

The past summer I had the privilege of inspecting school-yards in many widely separated cities and towns, on the extreme western coast, and in the great central country. In some the grounds were given over to weeds for the summer and were reminders of the old-time days when I was a school-boy forty years ago, the days when during the summer the school-ground ran riot with sand-briers and dog-fennel until the week before school opened in September, when these were cut down with a scythe leaving a thick-set stubble that worked ruin to the bare feet of youngsters who dared set step off the walks.

In others, there were many trees, shrubs, and blooming plants, but the whole was so put together as to offend the sense of harmony. In others were not more trees, shrubs, and blooming flowers, but all were so artistically placed that the effect awakened pleasurable emotions.

The character of the school building, its location on the schoolground, the size of the ground, the location of the walks, the trees, and the playgrounds; in fact, all the fixed features of the school premises must be considered in planning the beds of bright annual blooming plants that are to give an artistic finish.



HIGH SCHOOL GROUNDS.— *Photographed by James Speed.*  
Low growing plants as a border to a narrow lawn.

At our High School building we have very little yard space. From the building to the side-walks on the south and west fronts the space varies from twelve to eighteen feet. Between the side-walks and the paved streets is a parking about five feet wide. This parking as well as the yard space is set in grass and is kept as neatly trimmed as any lawn. In July and August when the heat is intense and the reflection from the building almost scorches the sod, the grass is thoroughly watered.

As the parking is narrow, and the yard is a mere border of green about the large building, any breaking of the sod for beds would only mar the beauty of the whole, and yet we wished to have at least a fringe of bright to intensify the beauty of the green. A space of about eighteen inches around the base of the building was filled in with crushed white stone,

then bordering the crushed stone another eighteen inch space was spaded deep and enriched for a flower bed. The crushed stone serves to keep the splash of earth from defacing the building, and also gives a white back-ground to the crimson geraniums that fill the bed. A single row of crimson geraniums is planted in the bed. We use the geraniums because they are free bloomers from the going of the frost in the spring to the coming of frost in the fall, and also because they grow only a few inches high and so are in keeping with the narrow grassy yard. This brilliant border nestling close about the base of the building seems only as the inner rim of the grass plot bursting into bloom, and is always a thing of beauty. Here and there a Boston ivy creeps up the building, its delicate tracery giving a finish to the setting at the base.





IRVING SCHOOL GROUNDS.—*Photographed by James Speed.*  
A mass effect as a border to a wide play-ground.

In the yards where there is a much greater depth from the side-walk to the building and the beds are placed against the building, plants that in some cases grow to the height of eight

or ten feet, are used instead of the low creeping border of geraniums.

From the building to the side-walk at the Irving school the distance is about sixty feet, hence the beds about



LINCOLN SCHOOL ENTRANCE.—*Photographed by James Speed.*  
Corner beds at the meeting of two walks on the north side of the building  
Plants would not grow well close to the building on this side.



LINCOLN SCHOOL, PLAY-GROUND.—*Photographed by James Speed.*  
Flowers cultivated about trees, when their roots need to have the earth kept loose.

the building are of an entirely different character from those at the High School. Instead of being eighteen inches in breadth they are about four feet. In the beds next to the building are placed plants that grow from four to six or eight feet high; just in front of these, a row of plants that will grow three or four feet high, and so on down to the front of the bed where the low plants such as geraniums are used. In deciding on the location of these beds, all the permanent features of the school premises were taken into consideration.

At each side of the walk entering the grounds of the Lincoln School from the street is a great mass of blooming plants in the two triangular beds. In these the low creeping plants

border the beds along the walks, the higher plants are placed farther in from the walks thus giving the mass effect to the bloom when looked at from the front.

In some parts of this ground where the trees were beginning to die from the packed earth, small spaces were spaded up about the trees and plants were set out and kept well watered. These in no way interfere with the children's play, but give new life to the trees and add bits of beauty to the grounds. Unconsciously children learn to enjoy these things and unconsciously they become so interested in them that in later years they will work out the same or similar plans in beautifying their home premises.



A Bed of Plants in Front of One of the School Playgrounds.

### MOUNTAIN LONGINGS.

Men say the plains have beauty :—Ah, but they  
 Must of a truth be prairie-children bred,  
 Nor can they know the deep hill-hunger, fed  
 By mem'ries of green slopes, of summits gray;  
 Have they in childhood, loncly, crept away  
 To look and look again, with dreaming head  
 At some loved peak, whose height would seem to wed  
 Their fancy to the truth,—a mountain reared in play?  
 Have they, like David, seen the welcome feet  
 Of tiding-bearers, hast'ning down the lea?  
 If not, how can they know the flood that fills  
 Our souls, when in the vales our pathways meet?  
 As Xenophon's Ten Thousand cried, "The Sea!"  
 • Our plain-starved sense exulting shouts, "The Hills!"

—*Grace Jewett Austin.*



## Within the School-Room.

A Department of Observation and Reports of Classwork and  
School Management Conducted by George Alfred Brown.



### Course of Study.

#### VI.

#### *English-Conclusion.*

In these articles the aim so far, has been to discuss a few facts which have been discovered with regard to the growth of the mind, and to consider the meaning of each in the child's education. This is an inductive method of investigation and requires of the reader about the same effort of thought as of the writer, to determine the relation of the facts to each other as parts of a process. Each student of the facts is controlled only by the meaning which the facts themselves force upon him. The individual opinion which may be expressed by the writer can only be another and subsidiary fact thrown into the discussion.

The aim of English teaching is generally stated to be the mastery of the mother tongue as a means of getting and of expressing thought. Occasionally, as in Miss Simonson's article on "How Literature Makes for Effective Living," printed in this magazine last month, a deeper purpose is also emphasized. The language power of children may be so developed as to greatly increase their power "to live richly and fully the free inner life of the spirit.—the life of aspiration and courage, of mental and spiritual triumph, and of joy by the way." This purpose is realized by so directing the

child's education as to promote a constant growth of the mind as an instrument in awakening the soul to the opportunities for higher living and closer communion with worthy lives. To secure such a growth requires a communion of spirit between pupil and teacher, as well as a store of knowledge. An adequate discussion of the course of instruction, therefore, requires a consideration of the nature of this communion. What demands in time and material does it make? What conditions and attitude must be established and maintained in the school? And, more important than all, what qualities, powers, and processes of human life are involved. In most discussions on education our power to know much that is definite about these questions and this relation is either denied, as by Prof. William James in his Talks to Teachers on Psychology, or dependence is placed solely on one's judgment of personality. After estimating the teacher's power in this regard, no provision is made in the organization of the school work for its further development.

In what does this communion of spirit differ from the mere giving of information or of present joy? If I read aright the facts that have been referred to in these articles, such a communion of spirit is a necessary condition, in the elementary stage of the child's education at least, for that consciousness of common interests and

desires to arise, which makes knowledge and the joy of an exchange of ideas possible. In the case of Helen Keller, her teacher, Miss Sullivan, found that the first thing she must do was to establish a relation of "love and obedience," as she expressed it, with the little deaf, blind child. By taking the child to a house where they two might live together alone, and by caring for all of the child's needs and taking part in her pleasures, while she compelled Helen, also, to share her teacher's life and do what was required in attention to manners and in effort to accomplish the tasks given her, Miss Sullivan succeeded. This union of the two lives awakened the desire for communication and a groping sense of need for a better means of expression in following their common interests, which at the end of three weeks led Helen to the discovery of the use of word signs.

Let us seek the significance for education which this and other facts giving an insight of a similar relation of language to the development of consciousness have. From a study of the part of the brain takes in language expression, traced mainly from the effect of disease or accident on the speech centers, it has been discovered that a word is a physical thing. It may be described as a charged brain cell. These word cells are in one area of the brain and as accessible as if they were arranged on library shelves. They are just as much physical objects as the alphabet blocks the child plays with. In the brain of the animal or of the child before the arbitrary signs of language are acquired, the brain cells may be charged with inherited or ac-

quired instincts. These may have control over the sensory motor mechanism of physical reactions and will transform some of these reactions from involuntary to acts which are voluntary to that extent. Prof. William James illustrated this organization of brain reaction by a diagram in his "Talks to Teachers on Psychology," and calls it consciousness. It was the consciousness of Helen Keller before she discovered the power of language.

But the human consciousness organizes the power to use language so different in its power and its means used, as to be a new form of life and require a new name. We call it self-consciousness. The basis of self-consciousness is, in its ultimate analysis, the assertion of person as a permanent and distinct existence. This requires a power to distinguish the attributes of quality or experience which may vary in the life of the person or be a common possession of others. In other words, it requires power for thought, and this involves that use of arbitrary signs for thought which constitutes language. In the natural development of the power to use words, there emerges into being this consciousness which calls itself with it a *conscience*, because it includes a recognition of the self as a free agent in determining its relation to others. Helen Keller is very definite in her statement that she had no feeling of regret for bad actions nor of her responsibility until she began to use words, and then she began at once to question what love was and what was required. She was then seven years old.

One function of this higher human consciousness is the acquirement of knowledge as a basis for judgment, since it must be able to refer all incentives for action in sensations, physical needs, or instinctive desires to an inner life of purpose, of appreciation, and of duty or conscience. The primary need of the personality is knowledge in order that choice may be made with satisfaction and without fear of future regrets. The child without direction must grope in the dark toward the needed light, hence the necessity of education.

The school has two duties to the child in performing its function. The minor is the giving of such information and training as may be a preparation for life. The important duty is such a cultivation of the life of the child as will secure his evolution from step to step toward a manhood capable of using the largest freedom wisely. These two duties come together in the English work and interweave at every step in a most interesting way for the teacher.

In learning to read the child must organize a new area of brain cells charged with the visual signs of words. He makes, as it were, a duplicate set of word blocks to go with those in the aural and speech centers. This is simply a physical attainment, as much so as learning to finger a typewriter. It may be gained by a training almost entirely mechanical in its method, and the power to read words not in the child's vocabulary and for which he has almost no meaning can easily be given in this way. It is sometimes an advantage to do this in order that the mind may have a sign at hand to aid it in organizing an ex-

perience, or a problem. To give a definition before the child has mastered all of its meaning through the study of examples may sometimes be the most effective way to direct further study. To read good literature in which the language, though unfamiliar to the child, impresses him as vivid and forceful may arouse a sense of appreciation for literary form.

But the important purpose in teaching the child to read is to so present the written or printed word that it will give him a new and needed means of accomplishing some purpose, or of extending his acquaintance or interest beyond the immediate environment. If written words are learned in direct connection with activities such as games, and as a means of getting some detail of a story or imagined situation, the brain cells involved respond directly to the life of the personality. But if reading is taught by the phonic method entirely, the words being learned separately as signs for the spoken language, the mind can interpret the written word only through a process of translation into oral language. This interferes with the child's interest in reading.

Oral and written composition or language exercises should, in the first four grades at least, connect with actual experiences of the children. They should not be expected to give detailed expression to ideas that have not taken definite form in interested observation or doing of some kind. But many things appeal to the child that he does not yet understand. Thoughts are germinating which will in the future control his life. The important work of the school is the guiding of this growing soul in its appreciations, as-

piration, and determinations. The teacher must watch the spontaneous questions and attitudes of the children and direct their attention to facts or experiences and to lines of study suitable to each. This requires that the teacher be ready to give or refer them to books giving the information wanted or the literary expression of experiences which interpret the meanings involved for life. The books read in school should have as close a relation to the needs of the growing mind as the composition work must have to present accomplishments and experiences.

Some questions were put near the beginning of this article with reference to the demands on the school program to meet the needs of such a communion of spirit. No great revolution is required surely. The teacher must have more freedom in the use of reading material, and a larger purpose in di-

recting the work than giving a mastery of the art of reading and some cultivation of taste for classic authors. To make the school a life as well as a preparation for life does not mean that it shall be made babyish, or that of primitive man, or mainly physical and manual training and construction work. The cultivation of the mind as the instrument of the soul must still be its main work.

Ruth McEnery Stuart, published a story some years ago entitled "Sonny's Schoolin'" which pictures some elements of a school in which the teacher had the attitude emphasized here. The education of Helen Keller by Miss Sullivan is an example of personal devotion of an extreme kind which brought wonderful results. The sanest presentation of such teaching as this requirement demands is given by Miss Angelina Wray in her book "Jean Mitchell's School."

### JOY: WITH WHITMAN AND SCHILLER.

GRACE JEWETT AUSTIN.

A half century apart and the Atlantic Ocean between them two poets sat down to write of Joy. Because to one of them, Whitman, the concrete was ever present, the concept came to him as "Joys," distinct, and akin only by their effects; while to his more ethereal brother Schiller, one splendid spirit, "Joy," appeared as inspiration. The fates were auspicious to the poets in giving this subject, for in the case of both, as long as their works stand these poems will endure.

Eight stanzas and eight choruses make up the ode of the German while

our American poet rambles on in his own fashion of rhapsody over a half dozen large pages. His first words were a challenge to the world of poets,—"O to make the most jubilant song!"—and it remains to be seen whether he met his own test. Both poets felt the far-reaching tide of their subject; Whitman in his third stanza exclaiming

"It is not enough to have this globe for  
a certain time,  
I will have thousands of globes and  
all time."

—while Schiller's first chorus proclaims,

"O ye millions, greet the telling!  
Oh, this kiss, so world-wide sent!"

Yet a scanty dozen characters suffice to Schiller for naming as special winners of joy, while half a hundred are all too few for Whitman, and you feel that it was with difficulty he consented to leave out even the butcher and baker and candlestick-maker.

For a pessimistic age, no better position could be recommended than Schiller's poem. Anarchy has no place with

"All men now for brothers finding,  
Where thy gentle wing abides."  
Firmly the poet declares,

"Deep of Joy drinks every being  
at kind nature's gentle breast,"

and later,

Joy, Oh, Joy empowers each minion!"

Even to his mind,  
Grief and need may come confessing  
With the joyous they rejoice."

It is poetic license, of course, but more cheering than Odes to Dejection. Let joy was not wholly of the spirit, even to Schiller. The next to the last stanza is fairly gay with Bacchic melody,

"Joy can bubble forth in beakers,  
In the golden blood of grapes,"

and ending,

"To good spirit quaff a glass!"

Otherwise throughout the German poem a sense of serene dignity and almost Lutheran devotion breathes. Joy, to him, is a divine messenger:

"There, assuredly, now must stand  
Who but God, above our weakness?"

The poem ends with a noble plea for devotion to the cause of liberty, that thus joy may come to all:—

"Pride, 'gainst kingly domination,—  
Brothers,—purse and life depise,—  
For the worthiest, coronation;  
Overthrow, to brood of lies."

And now Walt Whitman, what have you for us? The poem of our singer is readily accessible to all, and well merits careful study. Whitman knew no German, and it is highly improbable that he ever saw a translation of the Ode to Joy, yet with the exception of Schiller's stanza in praise of wine, there is scarcely a thought in the mind of the earlier poet which is not expressed with tense power also by Whitman. There are lines in the poem which could well become a part of any man's mental possessions:—

"Nothing exterior shall ever take command of me;"

"O to struggle against great odds, to meet enemies undaunted;

To be entirely alone with them, to find out how much one can stand."

Great in dignity, melody and thought was Schiller, but there is still room for national pride that it was an American who could write:—

"Yet, O my soul supreme!

Knowst thou the joys of pensive thought?

Joys of the free and lonesome heart,  
the tender gloomy heart?

Joys of the solitary walk, the spirit  
bow'd yet proud, the suffering and  
the struggle?

The agonistic throes, the ecstasies, joys  
of the solemn musings day or night?

Joys of the thought of Death, the  
great spheres Time and Space?

Prophetic joys of better, loftier love's  
ideals, the divine wife, the sweet  
eternal perfect comrade?

Joys all thine own, undying one; joys  
worthy thee, O Soul!"



## COMMENT.

### SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

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#### PROGRAM FOR THE WASHINGTON MEETING.

The Department of Superintendence will hold its next annual meeting in Washington, D. C., February 25, 26, 27, 1908. The president is Frank B. Cooper, Superintendent of Schools, Seattle, Wash.

This department met annually in Washington for many years, the last meeting there being held in February, 1889.

All intending to attend the Washington meeting are advised to ascertain from their local ticket agents details of the rates and ticket conditions some time in advance of the dates for the meeting.

"Card orders" are given for members re-

siding in Central Passenger Association tory or west of St. Louis, Peoria and Chicago, on application to the Secretary.

**Local Announcements.**—President Welt will receive the Members of the convention at the White House at 2:30 Wednesday, February 26.

Through the courtesy of the Trusts the Corcoran Gallery of Art a reception will be given at the Gallery, to the visiting members of the Department of Superintendence, on the evening of Thursday, February 27, at 7 p. m. The United States Marine Band will be in attendance.

**General Announcements.**—All general sessions will be held in the Metropolitan Church, 4½ and C. streets, N. W.

The new Willard Hotel will be the quarters where the Registration and officers will be located.

The new departments of the National Education Association, authorized at the Los Angeles meeting, viz: The Department of Vocational and Agricultural Education and the Department of Education Committees of National Organizations of Women, will be organized and officers elected during the convention of the Department of Superintendence.

At some time during the convention there will be a reunion of all former members of the Department attending any of the meetings in Washington from 1875 to 1908. All such members who will be present are requested to send their names in advance to the Registration Secretary.

#### PROGRAM TUESDAY MORNING, FEBRUARY

Topic: The Saving of Time and Efficiency in School Work.

1. Opportunities Offered for Economical Schooling. L. Heeter, Superintendent of Schools, St. Paul, Minn.

General Discussion led by F. B. Dyer, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati; Frederick E. Bolton, Professor of Education, University of Iowa.

2. Modification in Organization Necessary. C. N. Kendall, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Ind.

General Discussion led by John A. Elson, Superintendent of Schools, Joliet, Ill.; V. Elson, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, O.

#### SYMPOSIUM: TUESDAY AFTERNOON, THE PROPOSITIONS IN PUBLIC EDUCATION.

Propositions for Discussion.

1. The ideals of a democracy.

Discussion opened by James E. Rutledge, Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

## 2. Equality of opportunity.

Discussion opened by Edward C. Elliott, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin.

## 3. Provision for the vocational needs of children.

Discussion opened by James F. McElroy, President, Consolidated Car Heating Company, Albany, N. Y.

## 4. (a) Constructive activities.

Discussion opened by Miss Euphrosyne Langley, School of Education, University of Chicago.

## (b) Intermediate industrial schools, admitting at the sixth school year.

Discussion opened by Charles H. Morse, Secretary of Massachusetts Commission on Industrial Education.

## (c) Technical high schools.

Discussion opened by Geo. H. Martin, Secretary of Massachusetts State Board of Education, Boston, Mass.

## ADDRESS TUESDAY EVENING.

Agricultural Industries and Home Economics in Public Schools. — Hon. Willet M. Hays, Assistant Secretary of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

General discussion led by E. T. Fairchild, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Topeka, Kans.; Lorenzo D. Harvey, Superintendent of Stout Training Schools, Menomone, Wis.

## TOPIC WEDNESDAY MORNING, FEBRUARY 26.

The Nurture and Protection of the Physical Well-Being of Public School Pupils.

1. Contribution of Permanent Value to Physical Development.—Luther Halsey Gulick, Director of Physical Training, Public Schools, New York City.

2. The Mission of the Play-Ground.—G. E. Johnson, Supervisor of Play-Grounds and Vacation Schools, Pittsburg, Pa.

General Discussion led W. M. Davidson, Superintendent of Schools, Omaha, Neb.; A. H. Yoder, Superintendent of Schools, Tacoma, Wash.

3. Medical Inspection.—Thomas F. Harrington, Director of Physical Training and Athletics, Public Schools, Boston, Mass.

General Discussion led by E. C. Moore, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, Cal.

## Annual Business Meeting.

At 2:30 p. m. President Roosevelt will receive the Members of the Department at the White House.

## EVENING ADDRESS.

Desirable Uniformity and Diversity in American Education.—Andrew S. Draper, State Commissioner of Education for New York, Albany, N. Y.

## ROUND TABLE SESSIONS OCCUR THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 27.

(a) Round Table, State and County Superintendents.

Leader—J. B. Aswell, State Superintendent of Public Education, Baton Rouge, La.

Topic: County Supervision.

(b) Round Table of Superintendents of Larger Cities.

Leader—Ben Blewett, Assistant Superintendent of Instruction, Public Schools, St. Louis, Mo.

Two brief papers will be presented by J. M. Greenwood, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Mo., and George S. Davis, Associate Superintendent of Schools, New York City. The remainder of the time will be given to general discussion.

Topic—Teachers: Supply, Normal Training, Placing, Subsequent Training.

(c) Round Table of Superintendents of Medium and Smaller Cities.

Leader—J. H. Phillips, Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham, Ala.

## Topics—

1. To what extent should State Uniformity Laws apply to cities in respect to Courses of Study, Text-Books and Methods?

2. Principles and Methods in Pupil Government.

(d) Round Table on Agricultural Education.

Leader—Ernest E. Balcomb, Department of Agriculture, State Normal School, Weatherford, Okla.

Topic: Preparation of Teachers for Agricultural Education.

2:00 p. m.

Topic: The School as an Instrument of Character Building.

1. Training for Right Conduct.—Miss Margaret E. Schallenberger, State Normal School, San Jose, Cal.

2. Development of the Social Conscience.—Mrs. John M. Glenn, Baltimore, Md.

3. An Experiment in Moral Training.—Miss Jane Brownlee, Principal, Toledo, O.

General Discussion led by Reed B. Teitrick, Deputy State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.; Henry W. Williams, Dean of State Normal College, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

Report of Committee on Resolutions.

8:00 p. m.

Reception to members of the Department at the Corcoran Gallery of Art, by the Board of Education of Washington, D. C.

## SOCIETIES MEETING WITH THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE AT WASHINGTON.

The National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, president Stratton D. Brooks will discuss the topic "Relation of Superintendents and Principals to the Improvement of their Teachers." The first meeting will be held on Monday evening, February 24. The Seventh Year Book presenting a discussion of this topic is written by Charles D. Lowry. It will be sent to members in advance of the meeting and may be obtained by others from the Secretary, M. J. Holmes for 50 cents. Address Prof. M. J. Holmes at Normal, Illinois.

The college teachers of education will meet Tuesday afternoon, February 25, to discuss the topic of "The History of Education; its Aims and Subject Matter." Charles DeGarmo, of Ithaca, N. Y., is the president.

The National Committee on Agricultural Education, President David B. Johnson of Rich Hill, S. C., will discuss the report of the committee.

The Southern Society for Philosophy and Psychology, president J. Mark Baldwin, of Baltimore, Md., and the North Carolina Association of City School Superintendents and Principals, president W. S. Snipes of Winston N. C., will hold meetings at Washington during the week.

#### CARD ORDERS.

Members of the N.E.A. wishing to secure the special railroad rates to the Washington meeting of the Superintendence Section who reside in the territory served by the Central Passenger Association, the South Western Excursion Bureau, the Western Passenger Association, and the Trans-Continental Passenger Association, must secure "Card Orders." The card orders will be issued to members on application to Secretary Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.

#### FIRST INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS, AT WASHINGTON.

The National Congress of Mothers will meet at Washington, D. C., March 10-17. This is also the first international congress. The subject for consideration during the week is "The Welfare of the Child." Topics will include: Helps to Parents; Moral Training; Education; Provision for Helpless and Care for Children, Playgrounds, Libraries, Clubs, Day Nurseries, etc.; Legislation. President Roosevelt will open the congress with a reception at the White House on Monday afternoon.

Some of the names on the program are Hon. E. E. Brown, Commissioner of Education; Hon. C. P. Neill of Dept. of Commerce and Labor; Mrs. E. M. Thacher, Hon. H. W. Wiley, Mrs. W. S. Hefferan, Clifford W. Barnes of Chicago, Mrs. E. C. Grice, Dr. Martin G. Brumbaugh of Philadelphia, Miss Susan Holton, Mrs. Herman H. Birney, Hon. Ben S. Lindsey, Mrs. Arthur M. Dodge, Dr. Luther H. Gulick, Edward Allen. The president of the Congress is Mrs. Frederic Schoff, and her address is 3418 Baring St., Philadelphia, Pa.

#### REPORT OF GALESBURG SCHOOLS.

Supt. W. L. Steele of Galesburg, Illinois, has issued some very interesting tables on school attendance and on the results of the plan for elective subjects. They represent graphically the records of the last forty-five years for the Galesburg schools.

In table one parts of five decades are given from 1862 to 1907. For each decade three lines are drawn; a black one showing the percentage of increase in population, a yellow one

showing the percentage of increase in ment in the eight grades, and a red line showing this percentage for the high school.

A comparison for the five decades shows enrollment in the grades has increased more than population in every period. Enrollment in the high school increased much less than population for the period to 1890, showing an actual decrease. About 1890 the high school course was broadened to Manual Training and business course for the decade ending with 1900 the school enrollment increased 240 per cent while population increased only about 22 per cent. For the last seven years, the high school enrollment has increased 30 per cent, and population about 22 per cent.

The second table shows the decline in enrollment for each grade from first to tenth. At the end of the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades there is a marked falling off. At the end of the first and of the second in the high school.

Table three shows by colored lines the time spent in each grade in a graded school by its uniformity does not compel pupils to keep step more than is required. On an average only 63 per cent complete a grade in one year, and about as many more time as do the work in less than one year for each grade.

Table four leads to the same deduction; it shows that from the fourth grade up to the high school has children differing in age from four to sixteen years.

Table five compares the number taken in each subject during ten years with fixed courses in the high school, with the number for the same time under an elective system. Under the elective system nearly three times as many pupils attend school and all take English, most all general history, and physiology, algebra and latin are taken by about twice as many students, and even mathematics has a much larger enrollment than in the period of a fixed course of study.

All of this improvement in attendance and in courses of study, not due to elective and elective courses of study. The last fifteen years have shown a great increase in attendance in higher educational institutions, and other schools making no such changes in the offered have grown in a similar proportion when good teachers are provided. But sudden and maintained growth at the time after these changes were made indicate the appreciation of these opportunities by the public and should convince schools clinging to the old order that the public high school must provide for a wider range of instruction.

#### ILLINOIS SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB

This club meets at Bloomington, Ill., on Friday 7, 8, 1908

On Friday evening at Emerson School dinner will be served to members. After dinner and while seated at tables, an address "Shall the line of least resistance be the mining factor in making and choosing a course of study for a pupil?" will be given.

Prin. John C. Hanna, Oak Park, Tp. H. S. On Saturday morning at High School building Supt. M. G. Clark of Streator, will have the same topic as that used by Prin. Hanna. It is understood that Prin. Hanna is more inclined to the older education, and that Supt. Clark is more inclined to the newer.

Full and free discussions will follow each address. J. Stanley Brown is President and E. L. Boyer of Bloomington, Ill., is Sec.-Treas.

#### ILLINOIS MANUAL ARTS ASSOCIATION.

An excellent program is announced for this fifth annual meeting to be held at Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Illinois, on Friday and Saturday, February 7 and 8. Fred D. Crawshaw, of Peoria is president.

#### STRANGE CONDITIONS FOR THE 20th CENTURY.

At the National Capital a body of men bring accusations against a servant of the people of that city in charge of the education of their children. The same body of men having charge of the prosecution of this man act also as the judge and jury at the trial and bring in their verdict of guilty. Yet no protest is made that the farce of such a trial does not prove anything.

In a small village in Illinois a schoolteacher lies in jail at the pleasure of his accuser and so long as this accuser is willing to pay about fifty cents a day to the county for the schoolteacher's board. Should the spite of this accuser forget itself on the day of the week when this bill to the county for the teacher's board is due that teacher would go free. Even the forms of justice are not yet perfected in this democracy, much less the spirit. Are the schools doing all they should to perfect the spirit of justice in the next generation?

#### OPENING OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL AT ILLINOIS STATE UNIVERSITY.

The Graduate School of the University of Illinois will be formally opened on February fourth and fifth. The opening address will be delivered by President G. Stanley Hall of Clark University, followed by an address by Dean West of Princeton University. A reception to Dr. and Mrs. Hall and other visiting guests will be given on Tuesday evening. Dean Goss, head of the College of Engineering, will be formally installed as its Dean, and there will be a lecture by Professor Clifford H. Moore of Harvard University, on Wednesday, his subject being "The Last Five Centuries of Western Paganism." There will also be a discussion of the place and function of the graduate school in American universities, at which President Rammelkamp of Illinois College and President McClelland of Knox College, will be the principal speakers. In the evening there will be addresses by Professor Noyes, director of the Chemical Laboratory

of the University, and Professor C. N. Greenough of the department of English. The concluding address will be delivered by Professor David Kinley, Dean of the Graduate School, his subject being "Democracy and Scholarship."

The opening of the Graduate School is an event of great significance in the rapid progress which the University of Illinois is making in all departments of its work.

#### THE OAK AND VIOLET.

Pupils of grade schools of Illinois have selected the oak for state tree and violet for state flower. On May 1st, 1907, the pupils of the Rochelle public school sent invitations to other schools of Illinois to decide "What shall be our native state tree and native state flower." Superintendents were asked to have their schools study trees and flowers to the end that an intelligent vote might be cast. As a result a great deal of interest has been shown throughout the entire state. 21987 votes were cast for the oak which was first choice of tree. The maple received 16517 and was second, elm 5082. For flower the Violet received 16583, first choice of flowers, Wild Rose 12628, second and Golden rod 4315. In all 52107 ballots were cast. This is a good expression when you consider the first primary pupils did not vote.

## BOOK TABLE

THE GREATER POETS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY, by William Morton Payne. 383 pages. Price, 80 cents net. Published by Henry Holt and Company, New York City.

During the past year Henry Holt and Company has brought out a most interesting and attractive volume on "The Greater English Poets of the Nineteenth Century," by William Morton Payne.

It is especially valuable to students of literature who have not yet attained the rank of scholars. This class includes not only those yet at work in the schools, but especially the men and women of society who have cultivated a taste for good reading, and enjoy a comparative study of the contributions to human life and its enjoyment made by the twelve greatest artists of the greatest of human arts during the past one hundred years of the English people.

These twelve consist of Keats, Shelly, Byron, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Landor, Browning, Tennyson, Arnold, Rosetti, Morris, and Swinburn; named, practically, in the order of their succession in time. Keats was the first and, in a measure, the inspiration of the line which followed him. He said at one time, in a moment of depression because of the indifference of the literary public to his work. "Write on my tombstone, 'Here lies one

whose name was writ in water." But when he was himself and in the full flush of health and activity, he wrote to a friend, "I think I shall be among the English poets after my death." Matthew Arnold, a generation after said, "He is; he is with Shakespeare."

This volume is written from the conviction, on the part of the author, that all true art is produced "for life's sake" rather than for "art's sake." It is in an important sense a record of the development of the "folk soul" of England from the beginning of the French revolution to the death of Queen Victoria. The poet is the voice of this soul as in no other of its voices. The poet is great in so far as he is this voice. The author has traced in an admirable way this relation of each of these poets to the spirit of his time. He has, also, grouped them into poets of the first half of the 19th century and those of the second half; the latter group beginning with Browning.

In his study of the respective poets the author looks backward and forward in a way helpful to the student.

The abundance and fullness of the quotations from each poet, used to illustrate the author's thought, are most interesting and profitable as well as illuminating to the general reader. He listens in these to the twelve greatest poets as they sing their songs down through the century.

It is a volume of 383 pages in good type, and sold at a net price of 80 cents.

#### SELECTIONS FROM IRVING'S SKETCH-

BOOK. Edited by Martin W. Sampson, A.M., formerly Professor of English, Indiana University. Cloth, 16mo. 315 pages, with portrait. Price, 45 cents. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

The Gateway Series of English Texts, of which this forms a part, is under the general editorship of Professor Henry van Dyke of Princeton. In the present volume are included fifteen of the best papers from Irving's well-known work. They are preceded by a brief biographical sketch of the author, and an attractive introduction which deals with his style, and with the subject-matter of the essays here presented. Notes at the end of the book explain all allusions for the understanding of which the student will require assistance. The portrait of Irving appearing as a frontispiece is reproduced from a hitherto unpublished pencil drawing now in the Dresden Print Room.

#### NEWTON AND TREAT'S OUTLINE FOR REVIEW IN ENGLISH HISTORY.

By C. B. Newton and E. B. Treat, of the Lawrenceville School. Cloth, 16mo. 76 pages. Price, 25 cents. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

This little book presents a concise and clear-

cut summary of the principal events in English history in a form most convenient for reference, and in chronological order. Dates are given the less important included in parentheses. An index gives names, titles, laws, and wars both alphabetically and chronologically, and at the end of the book are typical college entrance examinations. The book will be of great help to the student, and more especially for students preparing for college.

#### The Magazines.

##### "IF THE EYE IS MAIMED."

Necessity gives to the eye a precious power of feeling to the whole. Sometimes it seems as if the very substance of my flesh were so many eyes looking out upon a world new created by the light. The silence and darkness which are shut me in, open my door most hospitably to countless sensations that distract, inform, and amuse. With my three guides—touch, smell, and taste—I make excursions into the borderland of existence which is in sight of the city of Light. It accommodates itself to every man's blindness. If the eye is maimed so that it does not see the beautiful face of day, the touch becomes more poignant and discriminating. It proceeds through practice to strengthen the remaining senses. For instance, the blind often hear with greater distinctness than other people.—From Keller's "Sense and Sensibility" in the *Century*.

##### SQUIRREL AND SNOW.

In the winter woods no wild trail is more frequently seen than that of the red squirrel. Like the goldfinch and the chickadee among the birds, it is one of the most useful creatures, whose courage and industry nothing daunts nor damps. After the night or the hardest snowstorm we go to find somewhere his pretty trail. It is scarcely a wood where a little search will not reveal his tracks, especially if it be a scattered butternut tree or a cluster of oaks, and if the snow be deep enough we go to discover one or more tunnels which he has formed in his search for nuts, or a hole he has dug to the ground. At times the tunnels are yards in length, with an entrance at both ends; sometimes they are cut in many directions by daily trips in his search for food. When most of the snow has melted I have found these branching tunnels to be troughs of ice and strewn with shells, and it is not uncommon to see the trails at the entrance to a single burrow. A favorite tunneling place is at the foot of a tree, especially of a butternut, where the melting snow has made a circular drift. "Nature and Science" in February *Scientific American*.

# SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

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No. 7

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## EDUCATIONAL SURVEY.

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### THE FOUNDATION OF ENGLISH.

BY B. C. GREGORY, CHELSEA, MASS.

I think the purpose of this paper will be understood if I tell how it came to be. I have long held the opinion that there are many grammatical errors taught, which children commit very seldom and others which they do not commit at all. I have had a theory that if we could get a sufficiently large body of data, we would find that there was among children a degree of popularity of error, so to speak, and that if this could be ascertained the work of the teacher might be concentrated on the most important errors, making unnecessary the work she was accustomed to spend on errors that had no practical existence. I had in mind, also, the methods by which modern languages are taught, in which grammatical constructions are taken up, not in a logical, but rather a psychological order, an order determined by the child's mental power and the possibilities of practice with relation to error. A good German introductory book, for instance, will introduce grammatical construction in accordance with the author's views as to the ability of the pupils to take up the work, the orderly and systematic presentation of the subject of German grammar being given a place in the back of the book for present reference and possible future study.

In earlier days, in teaching English grammar the systematic presentation came first and the practice in the use of grammatical construction afterwards. Then came the so-called reform, and an effort was made to approximate to the method of teaching foreign languages. In the earlier history of the reform it was assumed that grammar could be thrown out altogether, but gradually pedagogical opinion

drifted back to the use of more or less grammar in the earlier stages of the study of English. Out of this condition of things sprang the brood of language books. The authors of these books, having discarded grammatical considerations, expended a great deal of effort and exhibited much ingenuity in filling their books with emptiness. As the considerations of grammar reasserted their importance, these authors introduced grammar little by little and in accordance with their own views of what was necessary. The books were still language books, but had broken out in spots, in a rash, so to speak; a sort of grammar measles.

I think that anyone who investigates what has really been accomplished by our grammar schools in the matter of good English construction will be very much disappointed. The High School teachers who receive the grammar school graduates are unanimous in their condemnation. They don't talk very much about the methods, but they do talk about the outcome. The young men and women who reach the High School, so say these teachers, know next to nothing about English grammar. In the attempt to teach Latin, German or French, the difficulties of the High School are enormously increased by the total ignorance of English grammar on the part of the pupil, and the teachers of English in the High School rave over the fact that they are unable to point out the pupil's errors in the writing of English because he doesn't know the language by which those errors are to be described. I do not find High School teachers unfair in this matter. They admit that young children cannot take up the analytical consideration of English grammar, but they claim that at some time before the student reaches the High School he ought to have had a reasonable course in that subject.

Now, English grammar is to be thought of from two standpoints: the one, its use in aiding the pupils to write correctly, and the other, as a formal study for its own sake or to enable a student to analyze an English sentence or begin the study of other languages. It is generally agreed that the amount of knowledge necessary from the second point of view is not necessary from the first point of view. Prof. Whitney sums up the matter thus: "To make the young use their own tongues with accuracy and force, some

of the rudimentary distinctions and rules of grammar are conveniently taught, but that is not the study of grammar, and it will not bear the intrusion of much formal grammar without being spoiled of its own ends." The work laid out in the present study is as follows: Granting that the systematic study of grammar should not begin until a certain age, how much grammar, or rather what points in grammar, are to be considered before that time? Can they be considered independently of the rest of the grammar, and in what order and by what method should these considerations be taken up? When should this consideration of the subject cease and the formal consideration begin?

I do not claim that this study does anything more than offer a beginning in answering these questions, but so far as it does throw light on them, I confess that the conclusions to which I am forced are startling. They disarrange all my previous views and point to a revision of the whole language curriculum and the language text books.

The investigation was conducted in the following way: On the 20th of January, 1902, I requested every teacher in Trenton, N. J. (where I was then Superintendent), from the fourth to the eighth grades inclusive, to have a composition prepared by every pupil. When there are nine grades below the High School, one must be added to the numbering of grades in this paper, the fourth being read as the fifth, etc. Each teacher was to follow her customary plan in giving out ordinary class work. The composition might be a reproduction or an original composition, as the teacher might choose. I asked each teacher to mark every composition thoroughly in accordance with the scheme presented in this study as Exhibit A.



## EXHIBIT A.

## SCHEDULE OF ERRORS IN WRITING ENGLISH.

- \*1. NO SENTENCE. (SUBJECT OR PREDICATE LEFT OUT.)
- \*2. EXTRAVAGANT USE OF CONNECTIVES, MAKING LONG SENTENCES.
- 3. *Wrong use of article, a or an.*
- 4. *Unnecessary use of article.*
- 5. NON-AGREEMENT IN PERSON AND NUMBER OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.
- \*SIMPLE CASES.
- 6. *Non-agreement when subject consists of two or more nouns or pronouns connected by "and."*
- 7. *Non-agreement when there are two or more nominatives qualified by "every," "each," "no" or "not."*
- 8. *Non-agreement when two or more singular nominatives are separated by "or," "nor," "as well as" or other disjunctives.*
- 9. *Non-agreement when subject is a collective noun.*
- \*10. WRONG FORMATION OF POSSESSIVE CASE. (NOUNS.)
- 11. *Wrong formation of possessive case. (Pronouns.)*
- 12. *Wrong use of possessive case when two or more nouns are connected by "and."*
- 13. *Errors in the pronoun in the objective case.*
- \*14. AGREEMENT OF PRONOUN WITH ANTECEDENT IN GENDER, NUMBER AND PERSON. SIMPLE CASE.
- 15. *Agreement of pronoun with antecedent when the latter consists of two or more nouns in the singular number, whether connected by "and" or "not."*
- 16. *Agreement with a plural antecedent consisting of two or more nouns qualified by "each," "every," "no" or "not."*
- 17. *Agreement with antecedent consisting of two or more nouns, separated by "or," "nor," "as well as" or any other disjunctive.*
- 18. *Agreement when the antecedent is a collective noun.*
- 19. NO ANTECEDENT.
- \*20. ANTECEDENT DOUBTFUL.
- 21. *Errors in use of subjunctive mode.*
- 22. *Wrong use of or omission of "to" in infinitive mode.*
- \*23. ERRORS IN TENSE, AS "DRUNK" FOR "DRANK," "BEGIN" FOR "BEGAN."
- \*24. USE OF IMPERFECT TENSE FOR PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
- 25. *Errors in use of "shall" or "will."*
- 26.
- 27. *Errors in use of "lie" and "lay," "set" and "sit."*
- 28. *Agreement in number of adjectives with nouns, when adjectives imply a unit or plurality, as "this" and "these."*
- 29. *Confusion of "each other" with "one another."*
- 30. *Use of "but" instead of "than" after other, otherwise or else.*
- 31. *Use of adjectives when adverbs are required, as mean, meanly.*
- 32. *Use of adverb after a verb when an adjective is required; as the flower smells sweetly, instead of sweet.*
- 33. *Use of superlatives when only two objects are compared.*
- 34. *Use of "them" for "those."*
- 35. *Use of "like" for "as."*
- 36. *Confusion in use of "who," "which" and "that."*
- 37. *Use of two negatives.*
- 38. *Use of "to what" instead of "to that."*
- 39. *Use of "but" instead of "that" or "if."*
- 40. MISUSE OF PREPOSITIONS.
- 41. *Use of "between" for "among."*

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\*Not considered in result because not a grammatical error.

42. *A sentence containing two or more words or two or more clauses, each of which requires a different particle to connect it with the conclusion of the sentence, the appropriate connecting particle must be used after each word or sentence.*

*Violation of this. Illustration. He has made alterations and additions to the work. The word "in" should follow alterations. This is a very common error.*

43. USE OF SUPERFLUOUS WORDS.

44. Abbreviations incorrectly used.\*

I tried in preparing the above scheme to cover all reasonable errors in speech, errors which most people were supposed to make in writing and speaking at one time or another, and in preparing this list I was guided by a very valuable manual which I happened to have at hand. The errors in the scheme are indicated by description and number. The teachers were asked to indicate the errors by number and to make a list of the number of errors of each kind. Two errors of one kind were counted as two errors in the total, etc. I also urged the teachers not to consider the results in this work as a criticism on themselves, and I asked the fourth grade teachers to consider their compositions from exactly the same standpoint, so far as the errors in question were concerned, as an eighth grade or High School composition should be considered; that is to say, no allowance was to be made for the pupil's youth. I simply wanted to know, young or old, what errors he committed.

These compositions were written and criticised and the results were tabulated. The children furnished us with 2,807 compositions and 8,481 errors. The tabulation showed the number of errors of each kind for each grade and for all grades. I then subjected the figures to the following treatment. I found the percentage of each error in a given grade by dividing the number of cases of that kind of error by the total number of cases of error in the grade. I also found the percentage of errors of each kind for all the grades taken together.

A remarkable fact immediately developed, which was this, that for sixteen kinds of errors there was no percentage of error at all. That is to say, there were either no errors or else there were so few as not to reach one-half per cent. In the case of twelve kinds of errors there was a percentage of only one. I consider this a revelation. There

were only forty-three kinds of errors all told, and in twenty-eight of those, the per cent. of error did not reach  $1\frac{1}{2}$ ; that is to say, in 65 per cent. of the *kinds* of errors, the result was scarcely worth considering. Therefore, the strength of the correction must be placed on only fifteen kinds of errors, or 35 per cent. of the whole number. Here we get our first glimpse of the enormous waste of labor and time in teaching English grammar so far as its use in speaking or writing is concerned.

In this connection I cannot help referring to one fact in the investigation which brought to my face a broad smile. Notice error 42: "A sentence containing two or more words or two or more clauses, each of which requires a different particle to connect it with the conclusion of the sentence, the appropriate connecting article must be used after each word or clause." The illustration given of this is, "He has made alterations and additions to the work." The word *in* should follow alterations. When I issued my instructions I thought it necessary in this specific case to put the teachers on their guard, and so I inserted this warning: "This is a very common error." When the returns for the city came in, I found that in the case of error 42 there were just 47 instances out of a grand total of 8,481. This shows how much I knew. It illustrated the wide gap between theory and experience. It is a type of what might be called *a priori* grammar teaching, which places the same amount of emphasis on all sort of errors, when the facts easily ascertained show that many errors are not made by children. Of this, more anon.

## EXHIBIT B.

## CLASSIFICATION OF ERRORS.

No. of Error.	Error.	Per Cent. of Error.	Number of Errors per 100 Pupils per Grade.				
			4	5	6	7	8
GROUP A.							
2	EXCESSIVE USE OF CONNECTIVES, .....	16	66	43	52	27	10
GROUP B. SUPERFLUOUS WORDS.							
43	SUPERFLUOUS WORDS, .....	15	39	33	51	27	63
GROUP C. IMPERFECT SENTENCE.							
5	NON-AGREEMENT OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE, .....	8					
1	SUBJECT OR PREDICATE OMITTED, .....	6					
6	Compound subject connected by "and,"....	1					
9	Subject a collective noun, .....	1					
		16	71	60	48	28	15
GROUP D. VERB.							
			4	5	6	7	8
23	ERRORS IN TENSE, DRUNK FOR DRANK, .....	14					
24	IMPERFECT TENSE FOR PERFECT PARTICIPLE, ..	4					
27	Errors in "lie" and "lay," etc., .....	2					
22	Wrong use or omission of "to" in In- finitive, .....	1					
21	Wrong use of subjunctive, .....	1					
25	Shall and will, .....	1					
		22	87	69	66	47	19
GROUP E. NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.							
SUB-GROUP. ANTECEDENTS.							
14	AGREEMENT OF ANTECEDENT AND PRONOUN,..	2					
20	ANTECEDENT DOUBTFUL, .....	4					
19	NO ANTECEDENT, .....	2					
	TOTAL ANTECEDENTS, .....	8	19	29	32	15	18
SUB-GROUP. POSSESSIVES.							
10	POSSESSIVE NOUNS, .....	4					
11	Possessive Pronouns, .....	1					
	TOTAL POSSESSIVES, .....	5	16	24	15	14	7
SUB-GROUP. MISCELLANEOUS.							
13	Wrong objective case, pronoun, .....	1					
36	Confusion of "who," "which" and "that" ..	2					
	Group E Total nouns and pronouns, .....	16	43	64	59	37	31

No. of Error.	Error.	Per cent. of Error.	Grade.				
			Number of Errors per 100 Pupils per Grade.				
GROUP F. PREPOSITIONS.							
40	MISUSE OF PREPOSITIONS, .....	5					
42	Varying of particle, etc., .....	1					
		6	16	27	16	13	12
GROUP G. ARTICLES.							
3	Wrong use of articles, .....	3					
4	Unnecessary use of article, .....	1					
		4	16	13	13	11	5
GROUP H. ADVERBS.							
37	Two negatives, .....	1					
31	Adjectives for adverbs, .....	1					
32	Adverbs for adjectives, .....	1					
		3	7	8	12	7	7

I now come to the discussion of errors that were made. In Exhibit B I have arranged these errors in groups, so that their significance may be seen. The arrangement of groups follows generally the order of popularity of errors indicated in said groups. There are eight general headings. The first column indicates the number of the error; the second, a suggestion of the title; the third, the percentage of error; the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth, the number of errors in the group per hundred, and pupils (by grades).

Group A refers to the use of long sentences, with extravagant use of connectives, 16 per cent. Group B relates to the use of superfluous words, 15 per cent. Group C relates to those errors which belong to the formation of the sentence. It includes four kinds of errors, and sums up to 16 per cent. Group D relates to verbs; the percentage is 22. Group E relates to errors in nouns and pronouns, 16 per cent. It is subdivided into three sub-groups, relating, respectively, to antecedents, 8 per cent., possessives, 5 per cent.; and miscellaneous, 3 per cent. Group F relates to errors in prepositions, 6 per cent. Group G takes in errors in the use of the article, 4 per cent. Group H relates to adverbs, 3 per cent.

The errors are considered under three classes. Principal or essential errors are printed in full-faced type on both Exhibits A and B. Subordinate errors are printed on Exhibits A and B in italics. Errors not made at all appear on Exhibit A in plain type. They do not appear on Exhibit B.

Let us now examine these results a little in detail, and while doing so sketch a faint outline of a course of study.

Group A, the extravagant use of connectives, seems to me to be indicated as the proper point of beginning, not only by the evident popularity of that error, but also by good sense. As to popularity, the error supplies 16 per cent. of the total. I have often thought, and I have taught, that one of the first things to do in the teaching of grammar is to train the child to use short sentences. Then many of his errors are not possible. In oral and written work it is important to eliminate the connectives, which children want to use. The well-known tendency of children is toward long, involved sentences, difficult of correction, and the occasion of many of the grammatical errors and other crudities seen in the work of the pupils of the upper grades.

First, therefore, the pupils' involved sentences must be cut down to short sentences. I would keep at this until the end is reasonably attained—and I know from experience that it can be obtained—and afterward I would strike at the evil every time it showed itself. Suppose this is done. Is it not apparent that the danger of making imperfect sentences is very largely reduced? If a teacher should concentrate on this point for a good while, ignoring other points of grammar, is it not conceivable that in the course of a short time, say a couple of years, a good many errors would disappear of themselves? If it be objected that this would result in a jerky style, let the tendency of the pupil to unite sentences be borne in mind; when the teacher takes off the pressure, the pupil will unite them fast enough.

The evil of superfluous words in sentence (Group B) seems indicated as the next point of attack. The group furnished 15 per cent. of the total number of errors. It ought to be said, in passing, that this is not, strictly speaking a grammatical error. It is, nevertheless, so prolific a source of grammatical error that its consideration cannot be left out in such a discussion as this. The tendency to superflu-

ous words is obviously a matter which must be looked after continuously throughout the child's whole course. Yet I believe it can be so reduced that the effort during the latter part of the course will mean watchfulness on the part of the teacher, rather than specific teaching. And besides, the superfluous words which occur in young children's sentences are very frequently errors of grammar rather than of rhetoric, and are easily handled. When we have accomplished a considerable elimination of superfluous words, I fancy we shall have done more. Many errors of grammar arise from the fact that the sentences are complicated and the child loses track of himself.

There are certain interesting figures concerning this evil, to which attention should be called. Look at Exhibit B, Group B, where the results are given. The figures under the Grades 4, 5, etc., indicate the number of errors per hundred pupils in said grades. Under the fourth grade notice that we have thirty-nine errors per hundred pupils; in the fifth, very nearly the same, thirty-three; in the sixth grade, fifty-one errors, and in the eighth, sixty-three. The drop in the seventh is rather odd. The general trend of these figures teaches clearly a serious fact, viz., that we are making no progress at present in reducing this evil (superfluous words). There is a general increase from the fourth to the eighth grades. Even in the fourth grade the evil is not insignificant. It takes up 11 per cent. of the errors in the fourth grade. I read the lesson thus: The work must be begun in the fourth grade, with the expectation that attention to the matter is to be constantly insisted upon. If this be done and concentration guide the teacher's work, I cannot see why, when the sixth grade is finished, the evil may not be measurably overcome, requiring thereafter only vigilance.

If we add the two groups, A and B, do we not get something of a shock to find that 31 per cent., or nearly one-third, of errors in children's compositions, as actually found, relate to matters so simple, so easily corrected, and so vital? I cannot help thinking of Mark Twain's story of the man who was confined for ten years in a lonesome dungeon. Suddenly a bright idea struck him. He opened the door and walked out.

Let us now analyze Group C, which relates to the sentence. This group includes errors to the extent of 16 per cent. of the total, but notice that two kinds of errors in the group alone use up 14 per cent. of the 16. They are: first, non-agreement in person and number, subject and predicate (simple case); second, no sentence, subject or predicate left out. Let it be noticed that these are errors in simple sentences. Now mark the other two errors, those in which there are complications. They are the non-agreement where the subject consists of two or more nouns or pronouns connected by *and*, 1 per cent., and the non-agreement when the subject is a collective noun, 1 per cent. Here are complications on which we have been accustomed to expend a great deal of energy. Altogether, the per cents. foot up to the enormous total of 2. But there are other cases of non-agreement not indicated at all on Exhibit B, because per cents. footed up to 0. See Exhibit A. Such are errors involved when nominatives are connected by *or* or *nor* (No. 8), or when *each* and *every* are involved (No. 7).

I think in the consideration of this class of errors we have a flashlight on the whole subject. Here, in Group C, is a total of 16 per cent. in matters relating to the construction of a sentence, subject and predicate: 14 per cent. relates to sentences simple in construction, and the other mass of errors to complicated subjects and predicates; the latter collection, to which we give so much of our valuable time, sum up to 2 per cent. I say, does not some such law as this concerning the teaching of grammar begin to emerge? First, see that your sentences are simple; second, concentrate your attention on simple considerations and leave the perplexities to take care of themselves bye-and-bye, when you have cleared away the great mass of inaccuracy, and the child has the brains to understand them. Is that not sensible? And isn't it fully justified by the figures I am now offering? If the child can form the habit of, first, always having a subject and predicate, and, second, of having that subject and predicate agree, the one with the other in all simple cases, will he not have formed also a habit of general accuracy regarding the sentence, which will make it very easy to attend properly to complications when the time comes, and may we not, for the present, ignore such



complications and leave them for a greater maturity of mind? Here are three propositions which this discussion tends to put in the light of facts: First, many errors are so complex that children rarely make them; second, when the children do make them, they are so immature that they can't understand the explanation when it is offered; third, if the errors could be explained, the pupils don't have practice enough in the said errors to enforce their correction.

The indication then for the course of study in this case seems clear. Take up the agreement of subject and predicate only in the two cases making up the 14 per cent., indicated by full-faced type, and ignore the 2 per cent. More concerning this ignoring business bye-and-bye.

I would concentrate on this subject until it is understood, and so simple a consideration can be understood. I would dwell on it until it has become all but automatic to carry out the instructions. Then, when we have cut the sentences down, disposed of connectives and superfluous words, and made clear the simple elements in the construction of the sentences, we have laid the basis of teaching the rest of the grammar with absolute ease. Every High School teacher and every upper-grade grammar school teacher knows that the serious weakness on the part of the children is the failure to recognize the sentence as a unit. The plan is to proceed from the sentence to its parts, and these parts only as constituents of the sentence. Every new acquisition is to be gained from the consideration of a multitude of simple sentences.

Notice in passing that there is involved merely a simple subject and predicate, and furthermore, not a modified subject or predicate. The subject and predicate may, and in many cases will, be modified; the point is that the teacher is to pay no attention to the modifications.

The teacher may then grapple with the three great considerations: Noun, pronoun and verb; and, I should say, taken in the order named. But there are limitations. In the first place, consider the verb (Group D), see Exhibit B. Here are 6 kinds of errors. But there are great discrepancies. The total percentage involved is 23, and out of that as much as 14 per cent. is taken up with such a simple consideration as errors in tense (drunk for drank, begun for

began). Then we take a big drop down to 4 per cent. and strike the use of the perfect tense for perfect participle, which is very nearly the same error. Grouping these similar errors, we have 18 per cent. They are emphasized by being printed in full-faced type. Then we get down to the insignificant percentage of .2, in the use of lie and lay, sit and set. I confess that the fewness of errors of this kind surprises me. What will the elementary language books do if we take out all the pages devoted to lie and lay, set and sit? The Exhibit reaches bottom in three other errors, each registering 1 per cent. First, there is the wrong use, or omission of *to* in the infinitive mode; second, the wrong use of the subjunctive mood, and, finally, errors in the use of *shall* and *will*.

Now for a moment consider the first two errors of this group (18 per cent.), taking in the errors in the irregular forms of the verb, and consider that this is such a simple kind of error that it is easy to handle if we are disposed to concentrate. Are not results in sight when such a view of the case is taken? My suggestion is that this view be taken and that the verb be considered only in its relation to tense, and mainly in its relations to two of its tenses, the imperfect and the perfect, and to the participle.

In the case of nouns and pronouns, the subject of the next group (E), I note the following facts: The total per cent. of errors is 16. I have divided this section into three sub-sections. The first relates to the antecedents of pronouns and takes in three headings; the agreement of pronoun with its antecedent, antecedent doubtful, no antecedent. Total 8 per cent. The second relates to the possessive of nouns (4 per cent.) and pronouns (1 per cent.). The next two considerations relate to the form of the objective, 1 per cent., and the confusion of *who*, *which* and *that*, 2 per cent. Let us select from the whole group the subgroup of antecedents as one essential, and the possessive nouns as another, ignore the rest and go on. The question of the antecedent of pronouns, often quite difficult, is not very difficult if we wait, probably until the 6th grade is reached, and if the ground is prepared so that we may concentrate on it.

The sixth group, F, relates to prepositions. It takes up 6 per cent. of the errors, of which the misuse of prepositions

uses up 5. The other 1 per cent. refers to the varying of the particle in a sentence containing two or more words, or two or more clauses, each demanding a different particle. Note the 5 per cent. item. Ignore the 1 per cent.

The subject of prepositions belong, I think, to the latter part of the sixth grade, or to the seventh. It is a difficult subject even for older pupils. It is always an interesting subject, if it is properly conducted. The most that a teacher can succeed in doing is, I think, to get into the pupil's head the idea that there is a difference in force in the use of prepositions and to induce him to think of it. The control of this matter is a pretty late development.

We come down very low in the next group, G, which relates to errors in the use of articles, 4 per cent., including the wrong use of an article, 3 per cent., unnecessary use of article, 1 per cent. I should say, pay no attention to this group, or the next and last, which can muster but 3 per cent. of errors. This is the adverb group, and includes the dreaded double negative, and the unpardonable sin of saying badly for bad, and the reverse. Isn't a bugbear suggested?

*(To be continued).*



## THE OUT OF DOORS

Its Life, Its Wonders and Beauties of Form.  
Its Call to Industry and to Sports.



Photographed by F. M. Fultz.

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INDIAN SPRING, NEAR THE MISSISSIPPI IN SOUTHEASTERN IOWA.

The cave from which it issues extends back some little distance. Why is the opening wide and low rather than vertical?

### THE UPPER MISSISSIPPI REGION.\*

BY F. M. FULTZ, BURLINGTON, IOWA.

By the Upper Mississippi Region is meant that part of the basin of the Mississippi which lies north of the mouth of the Missouri River; although, when speaking of the Upper Mississippi River, all the stream north of the mouth of the Ohio is usually meant.

Mississippi is considerably under 200,000 square miles. This is less than half that drained by the Missouri system, and even less than the area of the Ohio System. The length of the river from its sources in Lake Ithaca to the mouth of the Missouri is 1300 miles, or about half that of the Missouri.

North of the mouth of the Ohio the

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Flood plain of the Mississippi is comparatively narrow, seldom exceeding ten miles in width, and in many places is not more than two or three miles. The bluffs rise on either side much more abruptly, in many places presenting bold, rocky fronts, and in some places coming so close together as to make a genuine gorge. The course of the Missouri river as far as the northern boundary of Nebraska has much the character of the Upper Mississippi; but beyond that, it is totally different, and the region through which it flows has the appearance of a much newer land.

The tributary streams of the Upper Mississippi are of no considerable length, with the exception, possibly, of the Illinois, Des Moines and Wisconsin rivers. It is largely due to this fact that the Mississippi is so grand and majestic. It gathers its waters through comparatively small streams and reserves to itself the dignity and majesty of a great river.

The drainage area of the Upper Mississippi extends to no great distance on either side. But the character of the area is distinct, both in physical features and in products, and may be considered the type of the larger area which embraces the basin of the Ohio lying north of that river and a small portion lying south; likewise, that of the Missouri Basin lying north of the river and extending as far as the north boundary of Nebraska. There are no great stretches of plain like those drained by the Kansas and Nebraska. These tributaries of the Missouri flow for hundreds of miles through an open country where there is no relief to the general level, excepting sandstone hills,

bare of vegetation. For the part of the year the evaporation is great in the region of these ; that they carry as much water they issue from the mountains do some hundreds of miles down their course.

Nor are there mountain about the source of the Mis like those of the head-waters Ohio, and along the Tennes Cumberland and other of its tril on the southeast. But instead tl rolling prairies and streams wi valleys bordered with gradual The tributaries of the Mississij among gentle hills, and incre volume until they unite their with the great river.

To know how the region has o have a surface so different fr torrent-scarred slopes of the watershed of the mountains, an the monotonous level of the western plains, whose only o found in the rough and naked stone hills and in the ditch-like nels where flow sluggish stream necessary to learn something rocks,—where they came from they are composed of, how the and are carried away, how the been sculptured and who the s was. The history of their life story which tells us whence ca wide, wooded lowlands, the gr hills and the rolling prairies. V also learn why there are sor abrupt rocky bluffs along the s and why throughout a small at where Iowa and Wisconsin m valley walls are topped with hi pinnacles and towers, the like o is nowhere else seen along the



*Photographed by F. M. Fulls*

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ON FLINT RIVER, IN SOUTHEASTERN IOWA.

**O**verhanging limestone; shale beneath. What agencies are at work decomposing the rock? Why is there so little rock waste at the base?

**M**ississippi. Then, too, we shall know **what** the soil is like, where it came **from** and how it got in its present **position**.

**T**he rocks of the region are mostly **sedimentary**; that is, those that have **been** deposited in water and formed **from** the material worn from the older **granite** rock, or built by the corals and **other** lime forming structures of the **ancient** sea. These sedimentary rocks **lie** in more or less regular beds. They **are** limestones, sandstones, and shales, **alternating** with one another. The **sandstones** are much more frequent in **the** older strata; then the shales come **to** predominate; and above the **limestones** make up a larger part of the **deposits** until the rocks of the coal age **are** reached; there the rocks are again **mostly** sandstones and shales.

**T**he strata vary much in thickness. **The** sandstones usually lie in heavy

beds. The shales are either very thick or very thin. Some of the beds are as much as a hundred feet in depth, while others are less than an inch. The limestones are found in beds, ranging from a few inches to several feet in thickness, but mostly between six inches and two feet. As a rule the layers do not vary much, and they frequently extend for a long distance without any apparent change in thickness.

There are some granitic rocks near the headwaters of the Mississippi and of those tributaries which rise south and west of Lake Superior. These rocks are in the same locality from which much of the material originally came that formed the sandstones and shales found farther to the south.

Granite is composed of quartz, feldspar and mica. When the granite rots down, the feldspar goes to clay, the

quartz breaks up into grains of sand, and the mica into small flakes. The decomposed material is washed away by the rain, carried into the streams and distributed along the water courses even to the ocean. The running water sorts over the material; the clay being finest, is carried farthest away. In times of flood, the water is charged with it, and flowing out over flats and lowlands, where the current loses its swiftness, much fine sediment is deposited. The sand being coarser, is left nearer the channel of the stream, and is not carried so far towards the mouth. It is piled up in banks alongside the stream, and even in great bars within the stream itself. Farther up the stream is found the coarser sand; and above that, extending to the very sources, the gravel, made up of fragments of quartz and pieces of jasper and other primitive rock, all rounded and water-worn.

Ages ago the shore of the ocean was next to these granitic rocks in Minnesota. They were then rotting down even more rapidly than in later times, and the resulting clay and sand were sorted and distributed by the waves and currents of the sea, and deposited in extensive beds throughout the region north of the Ohio.

This in brief, describes the rotting down and carrying away of the primitive rock around the sources of the Mississippi. The deposits of sand hardened into sandstone. The beds of clay became shale. When the clay was nearly pure, the resulting shale was fine-grained, such as we find in the beds in Illinois and Iowa where the fine potter's clay is found, the so-called clay being really shale. When the clay con-

tained much sand, the shale was and of little use.

The limestone did not come from rock material furnished by the gorges in the north, but these were built from material secreted during the equatic life of those ancient corals. It is mostly composed of the shells of brachiopods, the skeletons of crinoids, and the heavy framework of corals. The brachiopods were salt-water animals with bivalve shells very much like the mussels and clams which we find in the river today, and composed of essentially the same material. Indeed we had some of the fresh shells of these old brachiopods, they were used to make pearl buttons that could not be distinguished from those made of clam shells. The crinoids had jointed skeletons of the same material, and in many places the limestone was made up largely of their remains. Perhaps the corals furnished more of the limestone than any other class of old sea animals, and it is not at all unusual to find masses a foot or more



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**GRAND CANYON, showing the level of the river as they were gradually pushed up to present height above sea level.**

diameter containing uninjured the framework of a coral colony.

At times the shore of the ancient sea must have looked like that of the Florida reefs of today, where the corals are building up extensive deposits of limestone. Then again, there must have been bays and gulfs where the water was quiet, for crinoids only could flourish where there was comparatively still water.

After these sedimentary rocks were formed and fully hardened, the whole region was finally pushed up out of the sea and became permanent dry land. Immediately the different disintegrating agencies began to tear them apart and to scatter them far and wide. Of course the topmost layer suffered most. First came the rain. Streams forming, began to cut their channels in the rock and carry the material far to the south. The rain-water washed out of the air carbonic acid gas and carried it down into the crevices and the jointings of the rock, giving it an opportunity to dissolve out the cementing material that held the grains of sand together, and to gradually eat away the surface of the limestone. Running, underground water helped much by cutting away the softer strata, leaving caves and passages. Frost aided in the work. The water filling up the crevices and congealing in the winter, pried off blocks of rocks along the channels of the streams, and thus helped to widen the valleys. There were organic agencies, too, which took no small part in the transformation. Roots of trees pried off rocks, and the rootlets finding the smaller crevices, crept down between, and through their efforts to gain sustenance, decomposed the ad-

joining surfaces. (These different kinds of rock decomposition are going on at the present time wherever the opportunity affords).



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**TREE ROOTS GROWING BETWEEN THIN STRATA OF ROCK.**

Describe how they tear the rocks loose. In what other ways are these rocks being broken up?

Back from the borders of the creek valleys and ravines the top rock rotted down where it lay. The sandstones turned to loose sand and the limestones largely to clay. This decomposition of the rock proceeded slowly downward until there was a covering of the loose material many feet thick. At the top there was usually some loam, accumulated from the decomposed vegetable matter, then a thick layer of soil, either clay or sand, but mostly the former, which grew coarser the deeper one went and which gradually changed to rock fragments and rotten rock, and then to hard, firm rock. The soil at any particular place was pretty much alike all through. In this respect the clay differed greatly from that which covers the rocks today, of which more will be said further on.





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#### ROTTING DOWN OF LIMESTONE.

What different agencies are breaking up these rocks? What is the formation between the limestone strata? What kind of soil is forming? Where is it being deposited?

Much soil was washed down into the creek valleys and carried away. Where the erosion was not very great and the rotting down of the rock went on faster than the carrying away, the hillsides were covered with a mantle of soil and loose rock material. But where there was much running water erosion was rapid and the streams kept their valleys clear of loose material, and were bordered by more or less rugged rock walls.

The layers of rock exposed on the face of the cliffs bordering the channels of the streams, generally varied much in hardness and in the material of which they were composed. Frequently some were hard limestones, while others were soft shales or sandstones. The shale or sandstone wearing away, left a shelf of limestone projecting, which, deprived of its support, broke away in great masses. Many of the shaley layers kept on decomposing after the streams had cut their channels down past them and were running

at a lower level, the decomposition resulting from the atmosphere acting on chemicals contained in the shale; also from freezing and thawing.

The long-continued rotting down of the rocks and the carving action of the streams, changed the face of the land from a level surface to one of hills and valleys. The valleys were much deeper than those of today, and, consequently, the hills much higher. There were many pinnacles, towers, and bold buttresses where the rock had been harder and had successfully resisted the attacks of the decomposing agencies. There was a certain roughness and ruggedness to the landscape that gave it an unfinished appearance. Something was needed to subdue the roughness and round out the surface in lines of symmetry and beauty.

This needed agency came in the form of a great glacier that moved down from the north and overwhelmed the face of the land. It cut down the high hills, tore away the projecting rock from many of the steep cliffs into gentler slopes, carried off the loose mantle of soil, scraped and polished the hard rock beneath, and filled up the valleys with the debris. Beside the material it tore from the local rock it brought down much from further north. There was so much of this material that the glacier did not seem to be able to take care of it, so deposited it beneath and pushed on over it. The material thus deposited is called drift, and it is spread all over the Upper Mississippi region, excepting the small spot, already spoken of, along the Mississippi just where Iowa and Wisconsin meet, which is known as the Driftless Area.



*Photographed by W. W. Atwood.*

**TYPICAL SCENE IN THE DRIFTLESS AREA OF WISCONSIN.**

**What shows that the region was never occupied by a glacier? What can you say of the forces exerted by the agencies at present tearing down the rock?**

The drift is a compact clay. No order it is close and dense, since it bore the weight of the great glacier. It is full of angular rock fragments, many of which are scratched and polished. Some of them have several perfectly flat faces, showing how they have been held in the ice while being dragged over other rock surfaces. The glacier deposited so much of this drift, that when, after thousands of years, it melted away, the surface was left covered for many feet in depth. Forty or fifty feet of drift is nothing unusual, and sometimes it is two or three times that.

When the glacier finally retreated, every feature of the old landscape was obliterated. The surface was pretty much on a level, and the system of drainage had to be worked out all over again. But the new work was much easier than the old. In many cases the

streams found the old water courses, and, cleaning them out, established a basin pretty much the same as it existed before the glacier came. But sometimes the streams found the old channels so thoroughly choked that they were forced to find another way. Then they would have to cut down through the rock, and at such places you will find gorges. When you see a stream flowing in a narrow gorge between two perpendicular walls of rock, you may be sure that here it is following the channel that has been cut in recent times. If it is flowing in a wide valley bordered by gently sloping hills, you may believe that it is there occupying the bed that an ancient stream made long before the glacier changed the face of the land. Along the Mississippi there are a few of these gorges of recent origin. One of them is near the southeast corner of Iowa where the



*Photographed by Ernest Hanson.*

**A TYPICAL SCENE IN THE DRIFT REGION OF IOWA.**  
 What shows that the valley is an old one?

river flows for some twelve miles through a new gorge, the high rocky bluffs of which are scarcely more than half a mile apart. The old river valley is to the westward. It is filled with glacial debris, and on the surface of the land two hundred feet above where the bottom of the old channel was, are fine farms. Between the steep walls of the new gorge the river flows over a rock floor and forms what is known as the Lower Rapids of the Mississippi. During low water steamboats cannot pass over these rapids, and a canal has been built along the west shore in order that traffic may not be interrupted.

After the streams had succeeded in re-excavating their channels, and grasses and trees had once more made their home in the land, the region took on a loveliness nowhere exceeded in nature. The broad valleys, the gentle hillside slopes and the undulating prairies have

a beauty that is all their own. When the glacier moved down upon the land it found a landscape of deep valleys, high hills and rock forms standing in bold relief. When it had finally receded for good and the resculpturing was completed, the landscape was one of symmetry and beauty. For a time nearly the whole of the region was covered with forests, occupying much of what is now plain, bringing with them a richness that is greater than mines of gold and veins of silver; for to them we owe the rich mantle of loam which makes possible the agricultural wealth of the region. Later the forests retreated to the bottoms and hillsides of the streams, and the adjacent uplands, where they were flourishing when the white man came, and where they are still found whenever the hands of the same race have left them unmolested.

The mantle of drift over much of the

region is so deep that it is only in the vicinity of the principal streams that the channels are cut down to the rock beneath. So there are great stretches of territory where no rock is seen, excepting such as may be shipped in. One such region in Minnesota and northern Iowa is hundreds of miles in extent.

NOTE.—In the conclusion the character of the different soils will be dealt with. Another article will be given to the diversity of scenery and a brief view of the Mississippi River taken as seen on a steamboat trip from St. Louis to St. Paul.

*(Concluded in the April Number).*

### A BLUEGRASS VACATION.

BY JAMES SPEED.



*Photographed by the author  
Up-Side-Down Babies.*

DEAR DOUGLAS:—It has been sprinkling all day, just enough to keep us away from the cave. We got to talking with Uncle Ed and told him about our "letter articles" to you. He laughed and said he hoped you were quick witted. I guess he was making fun of us for talking about so many different things all at once. Toss is always breaking in with some out-of-the-way thing he has seen or dreamed about. He can't help but write in the same hop, skip and jump fashion. I don't wonder you got the Kingfisher mixed with the Fly-up-the Creek.

The Peter-peter-bird didn't come out of that nest of Fly-up-th-creek's either. Will take a picture of those long necked fellows some day and send it to you.

Toss is wild about climbing every tree that has a bird's nest in it, to see how the different birds keep house, he says. So I am going to let him tell you about the birds and I will tell you of other things. We will both put in about the cave though. We have only worked one day digging on it. Using a pick and shovel is hard on our hands, but those kingfishers managed some

way to dig their caves with only feet and bills.

This morning we went up into the loft while it rained, and tried somersaults from a high place. Toss can turn a first class one.

Close by where we were landing after each turn, we saw some marks on the board wall of the loft. I asked Toss what they were. He looked at them and said,

"This plank looks fuzzy. It must have been out of doors on some fence, and these short straight lines are where some boy marked the base ball score with a nail."

Do you know, he had hardly said it, when a slim brown wasp dropped down from somewhere above us. She walked down the plank until she came to the score card and backed down one side of it. She made the funniest little buzzing noise, and as she backed down there was a new score added. You should have seen Toss' face as he asked,

"Do you think the wasps are having a match game up here somewhere?"

The wasp flew away and buzzed about the rafters until we lost sight of her. We sat down to look at those marks again, and to see what else would happen. It was a long, long wait, but the wasp came back and did exactly the same trick, leaving a new score line. Toss had moved up slowly and quietly until his face was only about a foot from where she was at work. As she flew off, he called out,

"She's got something fuzzy in her mouth. Watch her close and see where she goes with it."

We didn't lose her this time, but saw her settle on the side of a small paper

nest that hung to the rafters. perfectly quiet for some time before we could learn what she was doing. We piled hay until we could get close to her, and then we saw her was chewing hard. After a time she laughed and said,

"Do you think she will ever get that mouthful? Wait a minute or two, whatever she's chewing on. It's getting bigger. She isn't swallowing it at all. Now she's stopped chewing and she's feeling around with her 'feelers' she's got on the front of her face. Climb up here closer and watch, but be quiet about it."

Doug, what do you suppose the wasp was doing? She was taking up soft stuff she had in her mouth and putting it all around the edge of those little paper holes she has in her nest. I laughed and said,

"Now, Toss, I know what she's doing on the wall, she was pulling out those little threads of wood. As she came back to her nest she chewed up into paper, that's all."

We are putting some photos of the nest and the old wasp in this book. We didn't get any picture of her when she was busy making paper. In some of these pictures, she is feeding the young ones. Toss gave her a splendid name. He said,

"Jack, they are 'up-side-down babies.'"

You know, they always hang down. I am going to write you more about the wasps next time.

I hope there will be something more for you about the work on the ground when Thomas writes you.

Yours. J

*The Fisherman and Family.*

DEAR DOUGLAS:—The fisherman I am going to tell you about is the mother of the long necked babies in the nest down in the orchard. We sent you the pictures of the nest last month with the eggs in it, and with the little birds as they looked soon after they were hatched.

But before I begin this story I've got to explain about this letter article business.

I am going to tell you all about the birds we are watching. I've found several different kinds of nests already. Different kinds of birds make their nests differently you know. When I give you some more pictures of these, I'll tell you all about them.

We are both going to write about the cave. Yesterday was a beautiful day and we dug out a good pile of dirt. You don't believe it was hard work but wait until you try it. I don't know how those kingfishers ever got their holes made. There is one thing sure, though, they didn't get blisters on their claws as we did on our fingers.

We have made the opening of the cave so that the willows will hide it, but at first we didn't know what to do with the dirt. You see, we must have a big room at the end of the low pass-

When we were resting, Jack and I sat down in the middle of the little bunch of willows to have a talk about what to do with the dirt. We had been there only a little while when the bird that has a nest in the orchard, the one that squawks so much, flew down into the shallow water of the creek not twenty-five feet from where we sat.

She didn't see us at all, and we kept as quiet as could be.

What we saw makes up my story of the fisherman. She stood a moment with her long thin neck way up in the air. She looked all around, but as we were sitting low in the willows she couldn't see us. She opened and shut her funny little tail like a lady snapping her fan, then she folded her neck up. It came down right between her shoulder until she didn't seem to have any. Then she got quiet and waited. After a time a lot of minnows swam close to where she stood. You should have seen the way her head jumped out from between her high shoulders, and she had one of the little fish before you could wink. Then she "froze" so still that she looked like an old stick in the water. She got two or three minnows and a tiny water snake. By that time her long thin neck looked quite fat, and she flew back to her nest in the orchard.



*Photographed by the author*

We took some more pictures of the young "fly-up-the-creek" in their nest. That's their name. At any rate, that's what Bill Harris calls them, and it's a good one. You see, they are always flying up and down the creek fishing, so the name fits. Uncle Ed says their real name, the one you'll find in the books at the library, is Green Heron. They are green all right, but we like Bill's name best.

I started to tell you about that pile of dirt that was bothering us so much. Of course, it wouldn't do for anyone to find it, for that would tell about our cave. Well, after we had watched the fisherman of my story and were rested, we thought what to do with it. We are putting it into the creek, and the swift current carries it off. That is simple, isn't it?

To plan things out of doors, just watch what happens, and keep a' watching, Bill Harris says.

Yours, Toss.



*Photographed by the author*

*Fun, Funny, and the Farm Yard.*

DEAR DOUGLAS:—Too busy to write much. We are busy with the cave, of course. I've got to tell you the rest of the story about the wasps though. I sent you the pictures showing the old wasp feeding the young ones. We didn't see at first how the young ones could know when the old wasp came with something for them to eat. These "upside-down babies" don't have any eyes and we can't find any ears on them either. We watched and saw that the old one tickled them with her "feelers." We waited until she had gone away, got a long piece of timothy and tickled one of the babies under the chin. You could have heard us laugh a block when the little rascal puckered up its mouth and began to chew. Do you know, the corners of its funny little mouth got wet; exactly as when a fellow smells doughnuts cooking on Saturday afternoon.



*Photographed by the author*

We are taking lots of rides on Fanny, now that her colt is big enough

SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.



A CORNER OF THE FRANKLIN SCHOOL YARD.

son geraniums. Just north of the paving and near the front of the yard is another large bed; and at the northwest corner, a bed similar in size to the bed at the southwest corner, filled with tall canna, salvia and coleus. These four beds along the west front give a park-like effect to the grounds and make the school premises a model of neatness and beauty for the neighborhood. They form a beautiful border to the playgrounds without interfering with the activities of the children in any detrimental way.

At some of our buildings we have hedges of hardy chrysanthemums that are masses of beautiful light-shaded green during the summer, and furnish a profusion of gay, ragged, flowers just at the coming of frost. These chrysanthemums cost nothing, as quantities are grown in many of the

home yards; and any one growing them is willing to supply sprouts (ground stems) for the school-grounds. Then too, these chrysanthemums need to be taken up and replanted only every third year, a quality that makes them very desirable for school-grounds.

Another hardy plant that we have found very valuable for hedge rows along the back borders of school-grounds is the peony. This plant reaches great perfection in almost any part of Illinois; and, in fact, is adapted to a great territory from northern Manitoba to the Gulf states; and from the Rocky Mountains to the Atlantic.

In central Illinois a hedge of peonies once set and properly cultivated each year, will continue to blossom for thirty years. It is true they are in bloom only a few weeks each season;





HARDY CHRYSANTHEMUM HEDGE AT THE SHERDIAN SCHOOL.

but the rich foliage is beautiful about six months of the year. I know of no more satisfactory plant for school-grounds. We expect to put out several hundred more of them the coming September.

I have said nothing of our aster beds. As asters are in bloom but a few weeks the later part of the season, we do not depend on them for all-summer brightness, but we plant many of them in out-of-way places, and corners where, when they burst into bloom, they form the greatest attraction of all the flowers.

*Tadpoles in the School Room.*

In March or about the first of April, as soon as the first intimations of spring are to be seen, the children of the primary grades who live within

reach of the ponds in the outskirts of the city, are on the watch for frog eggs and toad eggs for the school aquariums. They gather quantities of them and bring them to school in fruit cans, or sometimes in buckets, for their room aquariums. If more are brought to any one building than are needed there, they are sent to the general supply room at the high school for distribution to any other ward schools that fail to gather a supply.

At the supply room we have a tub of water into which they are put and from which they are distributed in glass fruit jars to the schools that call for them. In this tub and, also, in the aquariums in the primary rooms we put a bunch of Parrots Feather, a water plant that can be obtained at any



A ROOM AQUARIUM FOR TADPOLES.

greenhouse for a mere trifle. In the tub we put a large quantity of the Parrots Feather as a small bunch is not sufficient for all purposes when the eggs begin to hatch. A failure to put in the water-plant results in a loss of all the tadpoles as without it they will die soon after hatching. From time to time a little meal or bread is put into the water for a part of their food, but if too much is used, the tadpoles die.

The past four years we have had no trouble in keeping the tadpoles in good condition through all stages of their transformation to full-fledged frogs, and in a few cases have had the frogs hibernate in the moist sand at one side of the aquarium. In these cases the teachers or pupils have taken the aquariums home to care for them during the summer vacation.



## Within the School-Room.

A Department of Observation and Reports of Classwork and  
School Management Conducted by George Alfred Brown.



### Language Lessons in Primary Grades.

BY ANGELINA WRAY.

#### III.

#### "TOM'S FIRST."

Outside, the cool September wind rustled the maple leaves and sang soft gay little songs of the distant woods and the winding river. Inside, the schoolroom air was close and warm. Thirty-nine boys and girls were painstakingly writing answers to questions concerning a picture hanging on the wall.

The questions were numbered. There were ten of them.

1. How many children do you see?
2. What is the little girl's name?
3. What is the little boy's name?
4. What color is the girl's dress?
5. What color is the boy's suit?
6. What is the big dog doing?
7. Whose dog is he?
8. What color is his coat?
9. What is the boy doing?
10. What is the girl doing?

On thirty-nine neat papers appeared the following statements,

1. I see two children in the picture.
2. The little girl's name is May.
3. The little boy's name is Fred.
4. The girl's dress is blue.
5. The boy's suit is white.
6. The big dog is eating a bone.
7. He is Fred's dog.
8. His coat is black.
9. The boy is swinging.
10. The girl is skipping.

One boy alone, absolutely and unaffectedly uninterested, sat staring ceilingward, his blank paper untouched before him. Miss Bennett sighed as she glanced at him. He was the largest boy in the room and his dullness was so dense that it had become proverbial.

She had taught the class only since the opening of school in September. Fresh in her memory was the remark she had made to his former teacher at the close of the first morning,

"Well, Tom certainly looks good-natured. I can excuse anything if a boy has a pleasant disposition."

"Oh! he's pleasant enough," her predecessor had answered wearily. "For my part I'd prefer a little less pleasantness and a little more ambition."

Only three weeks had passed since then, but already Miss Bennett was conscious of a most irritating desire to banish the smile from the placid face. With still more irritation, not unmixed with amusement, she recalled the explanation Tom's father had given.

"Yessum," he had said in reply to her complaints concerning his boy. "Tom suttinly is a lazy feller. But he's even-tempered, Tom is. He's al-lus smilin. Why! he puckered up his face in that there grin when he wa'n't but three months old, an' it was too much bother to smooth it out, so he's kept it ever since! Lazy chap! he ain't got no nat'ral ambition. Don't

keer, if school keeps, or not, Tom don't."

"Tom," the teacher suggested, pleasantly.

"Well, what is it?" came the drawling answer. The class tittered, amused by the contrast between the brisk, wide-awake teacher and the sluggish lad.

Miss Bennett pointed meaningly toward the blackboard. Tom sighed heavily, wrote a word or two on his paper, and again relapsed into torpidity.

"Tom," once more sounded the warning voice.

"Yes-sun," patiently.

"How many questions have you answered?"

"Ain't finished none yet."

"You remember what I have said? No one is to go home to-night until all the language lesson has been written."

"Yes-sun," with unruffled calm.

The class completed its work. The reading lesson was begun and ended. Still Tom loitered at his task, spending most of his time in gazing at the ceiling, or out of the window, in an abstraction that seemed complete and hopeless. When school closed he was still writing the first answer. Tired and cross at the prospect before her Miss Bennett dismissed the rest of the class and sat down to help the idler with what would otherwise be an endless occupation. The last answer was finally written and Tom began to make slow preparation for the homeward journey. Miss Bennett watched him with some curiosity.

"Tom," she queried, "why didn't you do your work at the right time?"

"I dunno," was the slow response.

"Do you like to be kept after school?"

"Don't mind it at all," with unmistakable frankness.

Miss Bennett meditated.

"What were you thinking about when you sat there doing nothing?"

"Wasn't thinkin' about nawthin'."

"Were you thinking of the woods; or the outdoor world?"

"No'm."

"Were you planning what you would like to do when school was out? or wondering where you'd go if you had a chance to travel? or thinking what you'll do when you are a man? any thing like that?"

Tom grinned sheepishly. "No'm. Wasn't thinkin' o' nawthin'."

"Jest settin' still, that was all."

Miss Bennett let him go, but sat pondering over his listlessness for a long time.

It seemed impossible that any boy could be so impassive. There must be something in which he was interested, she thought, but as days went by and he remained as stolid and indifferent as ever she began to despair.

Reading, writing, arithmetic, history, as were alike to him. In vain she told others. He never listened. His very indifference piqued her.

She resolved that he should baffle her no longer, and at the same moment knew in her inmost heart that she had no key to his nature.

It was just at this time that she happened to read a statement in a school paper that all boys, without exception, were, or might become, interested in insect or animal life. She smiled scornfully as she read, then commented aloud,

"I'd like to see Tom's face light up over a bug or worm! It's almost worth trying. He seems to get more and more stupid. Why! only yesterday he said it made him tired just to look at the pictures I hang up for language lessons. If I knew a good subject for nature study I'd try it, if only to prove that that writer is wrong."

The chance to experiment came sooner than she had anticipated. The next morning she noticed an unusual commotion in the vicinity of Tom's desk. On inquiring into the matter she was a trifle shocked to see a small green caterpillar crawling leisurely over the back of the boy's broad hand.

"I'm going to step onto it in a minute," he explained. "I brought it in on my shoe."

Miss Bennett shivered, then smiled. "Don't step on it yet," she said. "I wonder what kind of a butterfly it would make?"

Tom grinned. "A mighty humbly one, I guess. Will it make a butterfly?"

Miss Bennett was by no means sure. "Suppose you put it in that empty box on my desk until to-morrow," she said. "Maybe I can find out something about it by that time."

"It'll die without anything to eat. Ugly little thing!" said Tom disparagingly. "Shall I stick a piece of wood in for it to gnaw on?"

Miss Bennett assented and promised to find out, if possible, what would become of the caterpillar in the course of time, and also what his proper food might be. Before dismissal, however, she happened to remember that she had forty exercises in language work to correct, and with a sudden inspiration

appointed three boys a committee to visit the public library, to examine a book about caterpillars and give the class full information the next day.

To the amusement of the others, Tom was made chairman of this committee, for, as the teacher explained, "the caterpillar really belongs to him, you know."

Armed with a courteous letter from Miss Bennett to the librarian the important committee went its way, and the following morning Tom, called on to report, rose in his place, saying somewhat bashfully,

"There was a lady at the library who looked cross at us, but after she read your note she laughed and showed us a big book full of colored pictures of all kinds of bugs and worms and caterpillars. We had quite a time finding one just exactly like mine, but we tracked him down at last. We couldn't remember some of the things it said, so I writ 'em on this piece of paper. I'll read it out loud if anyone wants to hear it."

That evening in her own room Miss Bennett re-read the paper Tom had read aloud.

"The caterpillar I brought into school on my shoe is a measly one. It would make a white butterfly. The butterfly would be two inches across its wings and would have one or two little black spots on them.

The caterpillar eats mustard and cabbage leaves, and gets on nasturtium plants, too. It come over from England in a ship-load of cabbages in the year 1860, and the farmers all wish it had stayed where it belonged. It is very, very common and is no good. There

is no cabbage patch where it is not found, and if it is not killed it will eat the cabbage patch bare. One of these white butterflies can raise three broods every year and sometimes lays over four hundred eggs at once. The caterpillar and the butterfly should be killed whenever seen, or else we shall never have any more corned beef and cabbage. I have killed the one I brought into school on my shoe."

Miss Bennett laughed until she cried, then suddenly sat up and looked thoughtful.

"It is!" she said aloud. "It really is!"

"What really is what?" laughed her mother.

"Why! you remember how I've often told you about my big boy, Tom and how he hates language work? Well! here is his first written language lesson, two pages, nicely spelled and pretty well punctuated. I don't know whether it's a success from all standpoints, but it's the first ray of encouragement I've ever had from him. I shall keep it all my life."

And though her mother smiled, in amusement Miss Bennett carefully labeled it, "Tom's First," and stored it away with her treasures.

#### SUPT. J. H. PHILLIPS' EDUCATIONAL CREED.

*We believe in the past,* And in the star-gleams that shine from out its darkness to illumine the pathway of life; we believe in the visions of its Seers and in the dreams of its Prophets and Messiahs as the earnest of the better time to be.

*We Believe in the Present,* With its victories and its failures, its joys and its sorrows; we believe in doing well the duty of to-day, as the harvest of the past and the seed of the future. We believe in the privilege of living, the joy of serving, and the divine blessedness of trusting, when we have done our best. We believe that there is a Unity of Purpose in all of life's processes, and that the power to convert material gain and intellectual endowment into spiritual values is the ultimate test of human living. We believe in Men and Women whose conscious mission is the Conversion of the World, the transmutation of matter into spirit, and the establishment on earth of the Kingdom of the Ideal. We believe in institutions that relieve the hunger of the body without starving the Soul; that alleviate physical pain without dulling the senses of the Spirit; that promote material and intellectual achievements without robbing the Soul of its nobler ideals. We believe in the hunger and thirst after Righteousness, the striving after individual perfection and the passion for social betterment as immediate evidences of personal Immortality. We believe in education as a divine agency upon earth, in Childhood as the hope of mankind and in the Teacher as the Saviour of society.

*We Believe in the Future,* And in the Suns and Stars that are yet to shine upon the Earth, to hasten the realization of the Divine Purposes in the world. We believe in Faith and Hope as the noblest senses of the soul, and in Love as the very essence of the Primal Energy, whose creative fiat, "Let there be Light," is silently through the ages evolving the Eternal Kingdom of the Spirit.

Birmingham, Alabama.

## COMMENT.

### SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

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GEO. P. BROWN, Editor

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BLOOMINGTON, ILLINOIS.

#### FOUNDATIONS OF ENGLISH.

Superintendent B. C. Gregory of Chelsea, Mass., has written a remarkably suggestive paper, a portion of which appears in this number. His former paper on "The Rationale of Spelling" is another of the same sort which was published in former numbers. Both of them are of the most valuable studies in elementary pedagogics that have appeared. Valuable, not to be followed by rule of thumb—nothing can be done by rule of thumb that is of any real value in education—but for their suggestions. The only real value that one can render to another in any field educa-

tional is by suggestion. "What use can I make of it?" is the question for the learner to answer.

Mr. Gregory's papers tell their own story with remarkable perspicuity, and his purpose in doing the work he has done will commend itself to every reader. It is the waste in our school processes that all feel the need of eliminating. Each school has its own consciousness of waste. Mr. Gregory's suggestions are more far-reaching than to spelling and elementary English; this every thoughtful teacher will see.

The two pamphlets — "The Rationale of Spelling" and "Foundations of English" are being bound together and orders will be filled at prices within easy reach of superintendent or principal.

#### THE SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB OF ILLINOIS.

[At its last meeting in February, the Illinois School-Masters' Club asked itself the question whether "Education should proceed along the Line of Least Resistance," and after spending one session in determining what is meant by the line of least resistance in education it answered in the affirmative, that it should so proceed.

But the definition made it clear that to determine the line of least resistance two things must be known:

1. The work to be done.
2. The amount of energy available.

The boundaries of neither of these have yet been determined. It would seem that the next step in the study of the problem would be to agree upon the work to be done. That is the question upon which school education is now at sea in its thought, and apparently without a compass.

The Temple of Education of this republic has written above its portal:

"WANTED—A PURPOSE."

Instead of seeking to answer this advertisement, the Club proceeded at once to the discussion of a method of doing the work. Of course there were as many different methods of doing the work as there were different conceptions of the kind of work to be done.

## SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

work be knowledge the method must be sound; if it be "socialization" (whatever means) it has its specific method; if it be Discipline, it must have another. The speaker showed what was the speaker's mental conception of the work to be done. The speaker looked in vain for the presence of a definite action in the mind of any speaker that the purpose of education was to assist in the orderly evolution of the psychic powers of the child—in their evolution toward manhood and womanhood. It did not seem to occur to any one that if the child himself were properly educated in his heart, his purpose, and his knowledge, that all these other things would be added unto him. The purpose of the school is to educate the child, the whole child, and nothing but the child. The process must be scientific to be along the line of least resistance, and the following definition of this line is the club's contribution to the problem of education.]

### "THE LINE OF LEAST RESISTANCE."

The meaning of the term "line of least resistance" as applied to school work seems to be somewhat confused. Many seem to interpret it as equivalent to the lazy man's doctrine of *laissez faire*; thereby reading into it the idea that Johnnie should not be compelled to do anything which his whim does not prompt him to do, but must work only as his teacher is able to catch and to hold his interest. Conversely, line of greatest resistance is understood to mean the course by which Johnnie's nose is held firmly to the grindstone, and in which he is made to do what he does not want to do, because grandpa was brought up that way; and because in his future career he will always have to do many things that he does not want to do; and, finally, because it is good for Johnnie to get used to this sort of thing,—he needs discipline; and, they assume, discipline must be imposed from without rather than from within.

This dispute over the question of whether, in matters educational, we shall follow the line of least resistance or not, arises from a confusion of the terms *license* and *freedom*, and from a failure to comprehend the correct meaning of the term *line of least resistance*. Hence it is a mere battle of words, and will be settled as soon as the terms are properly defined.

The term "line of least resistance" is borrowed from physical science; and, therefore,

for its definition we must turn to science. In the realm of natural phenomena, resistance is the source of useless work; and it is, therefore, the chief obstacle in the way of constructing a perfect machine,—a *perpetuum mobile*, as it is often called. Were it not for resistances of various kinds, it would be possible to build a machine that would convert all the energy supplied to it into useful work. Such a machine would be a perfect machine, i. e., its efficiency would be 100 per cent..

But since resistance is a necessary accompaniment of all transformations of energy from one form into another,—as from coal into steam power or electric light,—and since economy demands that as little possible of the energy available for a given machine be spent in useless work; it is clear that, in order to convert the greatest possible amount of the available energy into useful work, the machine or system must be so constructed that the resistances inherent in the situation are as small as is possible; taking into account, of course, the limitations and constraints necessary to the conditions of the problem. Hence, in physics, to follow the line of least resistance means to construct machines or other physical systems which shall have the maximum efficiency that is possible under the limitations imposed by the nature of the case.

Line of least resistance is thus equivalent to line of maximum efficiency.

In the light of this definition, the scene of the controversy is shifted; for everyone of us has been trying his best to make his school or his teaching attain maximum efficiency. So we must all agree that we have been trying to follow the line of least resistance in this sense, which is the true sense. This definition does not, however, settle the problems of education by any means; for we have now to determine how we may find the line of maximum efficiency in any given case.

Before attempting to answer this question, let me point out that this statement of the problem of education renders wholly irrelevant the arguments of those who would run the schools on the good old lines on which they were run when Adam was an urchin. It is as far beside the mark to claim that because the three R's, the classics, and the doctrine of formal discipline have been tried and seem to have proved useful in educating us, they therefore furnish the sole means of attaining maximum efficiency; as for an engineer to claim that because certain devices invented by Watt had been tried and seemed to



prove useful in his engines,—which burned twelve pounds of coal per horse-power per hour,—they therefore furnish the sole means of attaining maximum efficiency in the modern engine,—which burns but one pound of coal per horse-power per hour.

The problem of definitely finding the path of maximum efficiency in the schools is at present rather indeterminate. In the case of the engine, or of any other physical system, we are generally in a position to say definitely what the path of maximum efficiency is in the light of our present knowledge; in most cases, we can, and we actually do, foretell how an engine or an electric light plant shall be constructed and managed in order to attain this end. We are able to do this as well as we do because we have developed an accurate system of measuring both the efficiency of the finished plant, and the properties of the various factors that enter into its construction. In the case of the schools, this is not so. We possess no system of accurate measurement for determining either the educational efficiency of a school plant, or that of a single teacher; nor have we found out how to tell whether a given pupil is developing his maximum efficiency in the social system.

Hence, before we shall be in a position to definitely answer the question as to what is the path of maximum efficiency of a school system or a teacher, some system of measurement will have to be devised, and the laws that relate the properties of the parts of the system to one another,—for example the law relating the individual to society,—will have to be worked out. This means much experimentation and many failures; just as has been and still is, to some extent, the case in the domain of engineering. But if the problem is attacked in a truly scientific way,—and no one will deny that it is being so attacked now all along the line,—there is every reason to believe that the efficiency of the schools will gradually increase, even as that of steam engines is continually doing. But without such study and experimentation, and without an eye more constantly on the future, than on the past, such progress will be slow indeed.

It must now be clear that *license* plays no part in determining the line of maximum efficiency, while *freedom* does. In constructing an electric light plant, for instance, it is never a question of whether the copper will or will not conduct electricity. Since we know some of the laws relating copper and electricity, we are able to place the copper so that it will re-

alize its own nature most completely in serving the plant. If we but knew the laws of the relations of the individual to society, and those of the development of the mind, and a few others of like nature, we would be able to treat Johnnie as we treat the copper; i. e., we could place him in the system so that he would always be in freedom to realize his own nature in the service of society;—for true freedom consists in coming into harmony with law.

Certain it is, that unless we forsake the doctrine of "let well enough alone," and continue the organized scientific attack which has already been begun on the problem, we shall not progress rapidly. Such scientific work will soon enable us to see into the future, since by science alone is this prophet's power attainable. Such an attack turns us from a tearful contemplation of the lost arts of the past, to an enthusiastic anticipation of the joys of the future. It thus converts us from pessimists into optimists; for, you remember, the optimist sees the doughnut,—his future meat;—while the pessimist sees only the hole,—whose fullness of joy is in the past.

C. R. MANN.

The University of Chicago.

#### DISCUSSION ON TRADE SCHOOLS.

Some of the thoughtful men of the nation met in conference recently in Chicago to consider the question of Trade Schools supported by public tax.

President Eliot of Harvard is reported to have spoken as follows:

"I assert that it is perfectly proper to enact laws which will give the teachers the authority to sort out the boys and girls, assign to each the trade at which he or she seems best adapted, and the law should then compel these children to be trained for these trades.

This sentiment, I see, has already impressed some of you as being undemocratic. I think that it is not so. Democracy is based on a theory that all men are equal; all men are not equal, and never can be. Men of practical mind have long set aside that platitude for what it is worth.

And as men are not equal, so are children yet less equal. We see how in a single family, with the same heredity, same environment, same opportunities, brothers and sisters enter widely diverging strata of society by natural difference.

Thus I find that nature often conflicts with what idealists regard as democracy's princi-

ples, and when nature and democracy clash democracy is the loser.

What industrial conditions require is more workmen skilled as journeymen, not more able foremen and superintendents."

We had always supposed that democracy was based upon the theory that all men have equal political rights. It seems as if this report must be a travesty on what President Eliot actually said. Not until our degeneration sets in will this republic give teachers the authority to sort out boys and girls, assign each to a trade and compel the child to be trained in that trade. The reporter has made President Eliot talk autocracy from the beginning to the end of this report. He is not apt to slop over in that manner.

Jane Addams is reported to have said in this connection:

"Go slow, gentlemen.

Be careful, in the first place, that the manufacturers do not capture this movement as the commercial interests captured that of fifty years ago and made the one test of a successful school its ability to fit all boys "to figure" so that they could select at random and be sure and getting one already trained to do their work.

It will be a calamity if the public schools are required to train every boy to be so handy at a trade that a manufacturer can find a boy trained for his specific and immediate needs. If by raising the compulsory age limit to sixteen we merely use the years from fourteen to sixteen for the manufacturers' benefit, we have missed the aim of the school.

This talk of teaching trade is liable to be harking back to wholly outgrown conditions. The reason there are not old-time apprentices is the fact that modern conditions do not demand them. When no man makes a whole watch there is no reason why we should teach a boy to make a whole watch.

There is great liability of misdirecting the whole movement in the name of the trade school.

Go slow in choosing for a boy his occupation, certainly before he is sixteen.

There may be those who would dare assume the responsibility of determining a child's future for him at fourteen, but I should shrink from such responsibility.

The whole trend of progress is toward greater initiative, earlier initiative, and we attempt to turn the hands on the dial backward if, in the twentieth century, we deny the individual the right of initiative as to life oc-

cupation, if we assume the right of the state through the school to dictate arbitrarily his future.

To do this before he is sixteen looks like an effort to thwart his own choice at sixteen."

#### EDUCATION AT WASHINGTON.

In a recent number the need of an increase in the appropriation for the National Bureau of Education, as set forth by the commissioner Elmer E. Brown, was stated. It is easily within the power of those engaged in education in this country to secure this increase if each one will write to the representative of his district or the senator of his state urging the importance of such action. It is the indifference of the educational forces of the state or nation that is the prime cause of the legislative indifference to educational advancement. In America a union of educational forces in either state or nation would secure the end sought. It remains to be seen whether those forces now active will rise to the measure of their opportunity and power or whether education must wait until a more determined and stronger class of people take their places. It is not in our stars but in ourselves if we are underlings. Education is the stone which must become the head stone of the corner of American civilization. It will become that, for the American nation is to give laws to the world in the not distant future. This is to come about through the working of the law of evolution. The best germinal elements from the different peoples of the world are being planted in this soil. The greatest people of the world will grow from them; but only through adequate education. The best talent and heart of the people must conduct the education of the people.

The National Department of Education must grow into one of the most influential of the government. The commissioner is asking for the means to increase its usefulness. Will the educational forces stand idly by, wish it well, and do nothing?

The following are the names of the appropriation committee of the National House of Representatives:

James A. Tawney, Chairman; H. H. Bingham, W. P. Brownlow, Washington Gardner, F. H. Gillett, W. I. Smith, Jos. V. Graft, A. L. Brick, J. Warren Keifer, Martin B. Madden, Edward B. Vreeland, L. F. Livingston, Stephen Brundidge, Jr., J. J. Fitzgerald, A. S. Burleson, Swagar Sherley, E. J. Bowers.

### BUSINESS COURSE IN STATE UNIVERSITY.

The University of Illinois is urging upon the people that the demands for training young men for business have become so imperative that the best colleges and universities are trying to prepare their students by special courses of study for the work of business life. These courses are not the elementary work taught in the ordinary business school. They furnish training in political economy, commercial law, business organization, money and banking, accounting, auditing, insurance, taxation and a variety of other subjects, which have a direct bearing on preparation for a successful business career. It is a course which undertakes to prepare a boy for business life just as the college of law or medicine undertakes to prepare him for a lawyer or a doctor. Prof. David Kinley of the university will give more specific information to any desiring to know more of the facilities for practical experience as well as theoretic study.

### THE CASE OF SUPERINTENDENT SHERMAN CASS.

Sherman Cass, the Superintendent of the Schools of Tolono, Ill., is in jail in Champaign County in default of payment of a judgment of \$1800 rendered by the criminal court for injuries inflicted upon a pupil who was punished for misconduct. A statement in detail of the entire proceedings in the case indicates that this judgment is the result of a series of blunders by Mr. Cass in conducting his defense. It seems pretty clear that there were no justifiable grounds for such a verdict or any verdict against Mr. Cass. He seems to have considered the prosecution a trivial matter, a bit of spite work, and to have declined to follow the advice of his attorneys. He has no money to pay the judgment and has been in jail since last October, the result of a series of blunders on his part in not providing for an adequate defense against testimony not in accord with the facts. It seems to be one of those unfortunate affairs that it is very difficult to make right because of inadequate presentation of the case before the jury.

Before the local Justice's Court the parties bringing the suit were fined for disturbing the school, and their case against the teachers was dismissed. But an indictment by the Grand Jury was secured, and the trial resulted in a verdict of guilty for reasons above indicated. After six months' imprisonment, Cass will be

set free and the judgment against him discharged because of the insolvency of the debtor. The lady teacher who inflicted the punishment is now in the bankruptcy court, and may have to suffer a similar imprisonment if not better defended.

The point at issue is whether the superintendent and the teacher inflicted the punishment with malice in their hearts. The jury in the case of Mr. Cass decided that the evidence showed malice, and for that reason he is in jail.

There are questions involved in this case that it is thought ought to be settled by the highest court and so become law. This requires money and it has been proposed that the teachers of the state meet the expense of doing this. It would be needful that they first know just what these questions are. No decision of the supreme court can provide against the blunders of the defendants in the courts below.

### THE CENTRAL ILLINOIS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

This Association meets at Quincy, March 27, and 28, and will discuss the teaching of history in the schools. The following are some of the topics and speakers.

1. The Basis, Material and Spirit of History Work, Grades 1 to 6, by Prof. Elwood Kemp, of Indiana State Normal School. There will be two leaders in discussion, one being Mrs. Elizabeth Mavity Cunningham of Normal, Ill.

2. The Basis, Material and Spirit of History Work in Grades 7 to 12 by Prof. W. H. Mace, of Syracuse University, New York. The leaders in discussion are Prin. H. A. McGill, Jacksonville, and Prin. Geo. G. Gabriel, Quincy.

3. Prof. J. A. James of North-Western, will give an address on "The Teacher and Social Science." This will be discussed by Prof. Elwood W. Kemp, and T. H. Meek, Peoria.

4. On Friday evening, Prof. W. H. Mace will give an address on "The Redemption of Stephen A. Douglas." Saturday will be devoted to Sectional Meetings.

### SUPERVISION FOR RURAL SCHOOLS:

"The time was when a school commissioner, or county superintendent, who was a fair man was acceptable even though he knew nothing of the philosophical side or the history of edu-

education, because no one else, not even the teachers, knew much of it; but the time has come when a superintendent who knows little or nothing of those things is conspicuously unfit, because the professional men, and successful merchants and manufacturers, and the newspapers, and the women's clubs, and the labor organizations, and most certainly the teachers, know a great deal about them.

DR. ANDREW S. DRAPER.

The Cleveland that will entertain the National Educational Association convention June 29—July 3 next, is a far different Cleveland than in which the Association guests sojourned 38 years ago! In August, 1870, when the last N.E.A. convention was held in the "Forest City," the population of Cleveland was but 92,000, and the Association's membership only 170. Today Cleveland is the metropolis of Ohio with 550,000 inhabitants, and the National Educational Association is the largest and most important organization of its kind in the world.

WILLIAM HAWLEY SMITH.

William Hawley Smith is available for a few commencement addresses this season. Write him, at Peoria, Ill., for terms. It goes without saying that he has no superior in this particular field of educational work.

## BOOK TABLE

### EDUCATION BY PLAYS AND GAMES.

By George Ellsworth Johnson, Superintendent of Playgrounds, and Vacation Schools, Pittsburg, Pa. Illustrated. Cloth, XIV; 234 pages. Ginn and Company, Boston, New York, Chicago, and London.

This book is a most admirable presentation of the subject for the general reader or the common school teacher. It gives enough of the history and the theory of the place of play in education to awaken a keen interest and appreciation, without oppressing the reader with too much of the minutia of scientific data.

More than half of the book is given to a most suggestive course of plays and games. What is outlined here is "genuine play," not a playful element to be introduced into the work of instruction.

In preparing this course more than a thousand of the most important and widely diffused plays and games were examined and analyzed. The muscular activities involved, the psychic impulses stimulated, and the knowledge required for each was determined, and in this

way games adapted to each age were selected. Five three-year periods in the child's life up to 15 years of age are recognized. The essential characteristics, the necessary apparatus, and the games suited to each period are described for each of these three year periods. This is a most valuable and suggestive piece of work.

The illustrations are from photographs of children, they are full of life and add very much to the attractiveness as well as value of the books.

ROBBIN'S PLANE AND SOLID GEOMETRY. By Edward Rutledge Robbins, A. B. Senior Mathematical Master. The William Penn Charter School. Half leather, 8 vo., 412 pages. Price, \$1.25. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

This book is the outgrowth of the classroom, and is clear, consistent, teachable, and sound. The work is suggestively and comprehensively outlined. The preliminary matter is brief and simple, and each theorem is employed in the demonstration of other theorems as promptly as is practicable and desirable. The successive truths in a demonstration are stated, and the pupil is asked the reasons, thus leading him to think for himself. The original exercises are numerous and independent; and the demonstrations are brief without sacrifice of logical rigor. The book is written essentially for the pupil, and will stimulate his mental activity and arouse his enthusiasm in the study.

JOHNSTON AND BARNUM'S BOOK OF PLAYS FOR LITTLE ACTORS. By Emma L. Johnston, Principal, and Madeline D. Barnum, Teacher of English, Brooklyn Training School for Teachers. Cloth, 16mo., 171 pages, with illustrations. Price, 30 cents. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

This little book will give school children a great deal of pleasure, and will train them both in expressive oral reading, and in intelligent silent reading. The volume has been prepared to meet the expressed wants of many teachers who recognize the value of dramatic representations at school. It comprises a series of little plays based upon familiar nursery rhymes and stories, such as Mary and her Lamb, The Lion and the Mouse, The Spider and the Fly, Old Mother Hubbard, and many others. These plays are adapted to the use of the youngest children at school, and are equally suitable for reading or for acting in the first or second years. The numerous illustrations are very attractive.

# SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

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No. 8

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## EDUCATIONAL SURVEY.

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**Dr. Richard Edwards.** Another of the many men and women who have made it clear that life may be worth the living has gone to the beyond, and the people say of him, "Well done good and faithful servant." This is said truly of this man, for his life was one of faithful service. For sixty-five years—the period of his manhood—he has measured his success by what he has done for others. It was given to him to know better how to serve, and in what field to make his service multiply from generation to generation. What he has done helped not only those he served, but descends to children's children. Such is the opportunity of the teacher, and when he is the inspiring teacher of teachers his service is multiplied a thousand fold.

Dr. Edwards' ability to inspire, to awaken in others a spirit kindred to his own, was what especially distinguished him. None who had that spirit, latent though it may have been, could escape the contagion of his influence. It left them burdened with the conviction that to serve the children was the noblest service to God and man, and that to lose one's life in that service was to find it infinitely enriched and ennobled. With such possibilities before them, how paltry

seemed the devotion of a life to the gathering of wealth or the pursuit of political honors.

Of course, those who came out from that school became to a degree similar leaders according to the measure of their ability. For years a remarkable per cent of the influential workers in education throughout the west arose from the graduates of the Normal School at Normal. They were not remarkable for their erudition, perhaps. That comes to the plodder who may not be a seer—to the priest who cannot be a prophet. His students were remarkable for their power. Power is will touched with feeling. It is not erudition. Intellect is its servant; a necessary aid to the attainment of the purpose, but it is not the power nor the source of the power, as too many seem to think.

At the age of eighty-five Dr. Edwards was gathered to his fathers and his works will praise him for many generations.

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**Meeting of the  
Department of  
Supts.**

The impressions of the Washington meeting left on the writer are not such as give entire satisfaction. The problems of industrial education are too new, apparently, to be given an adequate form of

statement for rational debate as yet.

There was too much flinging out of mere words and phrases, too little consideration given to facts of child-nature and to conditions and principles which must in the end determine the character of the work of the schools. The wise men on the program were too much abashed by the flurry of the new crusade to emphasize sharply the value of such careful investigation and experiment and patient study of conditions, as characterized their own reports. There was some dispute on facts presented, but not enough criticism of propositions and principles, and of the amount and kind of data needed. If those who heard the discussion and others who may read the proceedings shall be stimulated to think on the subjects brought up, and to make constructive criticisms, a value for the meeting will develop.

The program for the first two general sessions is open to criticism for lack of organization and poor statement of topics. "The Saving of Time and Energy in School Work" was given as the topic for Tuesday morning. But both of the sub-heads specified a re-organization in the use of time and energy for the purpose of securing certain ends in education. The first head was discussed with reference to the demands of industrial education. The second head referred particularly to certain needs of the bright pupil. These two sub-heads had nothing in common. They were not even related by being opposed. They could be brought under such a general topic as "The Use of Time and Energy in School Work," only as

distinct and independent problems posed by different conditions, of social needs, the other of culture.

The program for Tuesday afternoon was "The Place of Industries in Public Education." It not only a organization of related topics, up for discussion proposition, to paraphrase a common saying. It is not ideals of democracy nor the lack of them which keep industries out of the public schools. Nor is the question of equality of opportunity very pertinent to the traditional question of "The Place of Industries in Public Schools."

In making the above criticisms of the program, no criticism is intended of the makers of it. The principal Superintendent Cooper, who knew its weaknesses as well as its strengths, and Mr. Jesse D. Burke, who ranged the symposium on Industries in Education, explained to the audience in closing that this was a first attempt to organize into a discussion two divergent ideas now claiming attention. He hoped that the experience obtained would help to make a better program for this department at the next annual meeting a better one.

Undoubtedly the common school is rapidly emerging into a greatly extended range of activity, to be made possible by better equipment, more teachers, and a freer expenditure of time and money to meet increasing needs more adequately. We may be just at that point of change from evolution to revolution instead of evolution. If this is aided as the next step. In the school, it would seem to such

is to be made out of hand, h has his own plan for beginning- (et few, apparently, were able ible the succeeding steps or rate that desired results would from their plans. It is these led iconoclasts who must be allowed wind themselves before the movement to advance education can become effective.

Washington meeting was in ways a popping of the safety and the discussions may serve the energies working for within the range of safe presence. Although most of the energy meeting seemed to be wasting escaped steam, the waste was not only that of the excess of energy to the vigorous stoking by the men.

of the most vigorous of these al stokers of the new movement was Superintendent S. L. He opened the discussions of school education, which he had as that of popular efficiency. His aim was to replace the old general culture. Because such directs education toward the man as an immediately active economic unit in society, it is supposed to lead to an economy of the purpose and energy in school work. The aim of popular efficiency was not clearly defined, but was apparently a general rather than as a descriptive term. The thought of the paper seemed to be that many of our aims should be recognized would meet the needs of different classes of children and even of infants as a preparation for immedi-

ate efficiency in some walk of life. This new aim was to be democratic, the speaker said, and so adapted to the child as to possess for him "compelling power from within" toward his school work. Mr. Heeter assumed that children would be attracted to industrial life, if introduced so as not to be drudgery. He advocated a broad system of industrial education for the first six grades, and for the seventh and eighth grades, vocational as well as culture courses. The purpose of all of these courses was to socialize and industrialize the pupils' ideas of and relations to life. The old classical High School should be abolished, was another statement of the paper, and at least one High School in every city devoted to teaching trades and to specialized industrial training.

We have no statistics to show that such concentration of educational effort on economic interests would possess a "compelling power from within." And if it did, would the spontaneous interests of child nature along this line alone give a growth of mental and spiritual power productive of a richer and larger life than that nurtured by the present culture aim? If practice should show that time and energy were thus saved by narrowing human life and allowing spiritual power to atrophy, the labor classes and political economists would both condemn it.

Superintendent F. B. Dyer of Cincinnati led the general discussion of this topic with one of the sanest and most helpful ten minute talks of the meeting. It was devoted mainly to ways of eliminating waste of time and energy in school work when devoted

to education for human development. More expert teaching is needed, a better arrangement of the work, and the elimination of obsolete matter and methods. In this way one-half of the time now given to teaching arithmetic, for instance, might be saved. In all drill subjects an increase of intensity together with a shortening of time would give better results. The single purpose in re-organizing the work of the school must be to better follow the laws of the growth of human nature, said Superintendent Dyer, as an answer to those advocating other aims.

Mr. Dyer gave a very suggestive list of causes of waste, mentioning among others, poor physical conditions, inadequate classification and promotion of pupils, too much written work required, teaching that is without stimulation, too much routine, failure to use details to advantage, etc. The remedy for most of these causes lies with the principal.

Prof. F. E. Bolton, in continuing this discussion, pointed out an important law of growth bearing on the ordering of subject matter. He stated that a rational adaptation of what is called the spiral method, in which the same subject is repeated in successive periods of elementary instruction, will best meet the needs of the children's growth as they advance from stage to stage in their education.

Because of the inevitable lack of organization in a program devoted to the expression of diverse opinions and individual experiences in a comparatively new movement, this report, to be of value in bringing together related topics, cannot follow the actual order of presentation at the meeting.

Related to the line of discussion followed by Superintendent Dyer Professor Bolton, was the ten minute talk of Superintendent John A. of Joliet, Illinois, although it given under the second topic of Tuesday morning session.

Mr. Long's organization of the elementary school is based on the basis of the stages or periods in the growth of mental attitudes in childhood made by Dr. Dewey. In each period the child has certain ways of looking at things and certain powers for growth and development. If this is true, we must shift the standard of growth and promotion from the acquisition of certain elements of knowledge to the question of developed individual power. Gradation should be, not success in doing the prescribed work but on power to do work that indicates capacity for advance.

Mr. Long outlined an entire chapter in the arrangement of classes and the periods of promotion. A grade is not the work of a year, or of a year or of ten weeks, but it is the work of a period marked out by important psychological changes giving characteristic attitude and powers. At two points in the eight years of the elementary school course governing change in psychological attitude in children's curriculum, as stated by Dr. Dewey. One is about the end of the second school year marks the change from an attitude of direct sense activity and interest in accumulating imagery, with little interest in using things to attain remote purposes to an attitude of interest in the organization of imagery on the basis of adaptation of means to projected ends. This second period is one of intelle-



and extends well through school year. It is followed by the beginning of adolescence and a social thinking. Mr. Long has tried, in some schools, to have the same teacher in a class through the first two years. He argues that the child's capacity being of a similar nature in both of these years, the teacher for the first year has the skill needed by the children in the second year. The four years of the immediate period he has found it a divide between two teachers for each class. With one teacher for two years of the grammar school, the children would come under the direction of but four teachers in four years. There would really be four times in the course when a teacher for graduation would have to leave. So long as the children are in the same psychological grade of development and remain under the same teacher, the work must be adapted to the needs of the pupils as in the past.

Their lives need an enriched and increased range of the humanities to the end that they may spend the proper time with well-developed powers, into the next grade in their growth. The most of the discussion of the question meeting was not very related to the psychology of education. Problems of administration were reached from the point of view of individualism by the majority of the students. When the community is so ignorant that children can not spell, or do sums satisfactorily, the parent is apt to seek some special drill to perfect the work in these things. So when at the present

time word has gone abroad that "incompetence in the arts is quite as dangerous as illiteracy," the first tendency is to provide, if possible, some special training for each trade. If high school graduates in stenography cannot compete with older people graduating from a ten weeks' course in a "business college," the superintendent is apt to intensify drill without considering the possible relation of the greater maturity of the ten weeks' student to the question of economy of effort in mastering the trade.

There is need of much experimenting, of extended and careful observation, and of wise investigation of educational laws and principles in the field of industrial education before the executive task of wisely adjusting the work of the common school to this demand, can be successfully accomplished. Do the superintendents as a body have the necessary time, means, and training to do this work of determining the governing laws? If not, should it be referred to the National Council and an investigating committee be appointed to prepare a report? Or has American education reached the stage when it needs a permanent council or department of national education, equipped in representative ability for the task of determining both the scientific principles, and the possible adaptations to conditions necessary to establish reasonable requirements of the schools under such conditions? When the people recognize the school as an institution having an independent work to do, and governing principles of its own, this institution will be so organized as to provide for an efficient department of

investigation with power to at least advise in the legislative function of determining the work the common school may profitably do under given conditions. The executive officer will then have an accepted body of principles and determinations of policy to guide his

work of organization and execution.

This report will be continued in the May number as there were a number of excellent addresses and talks in the sessions not mentioned so far, which will repay study. G. A. B.

### RICHARD EDWARDS, LL.D.

BY JOHN W. COOK.

At last against his honored name

"The fatal asterisk of death is set."

We call it a ripe old age—he was in his eighty-sixth year—yet his passing brought not only a personal sorrow to thousands but a sense of surprise as well. Physically he exhibited some of the marks of old age; mentally there was very slight suggestion of it. An early morning visit at his home only a few weeks before his last illness disclosed the same old joyous tone and buoyancy of spirit, the same youthful and idealistic estimate of the world that always characterized him. There was no suggestion that he was brooding over the inevitable; his face was still unmistakably toward the east.

Dr. Edwards was a Welshman until he was twelve years old; then he began to be an American and he made up many times over those alien years in the ardor of his enthusiasm for his adopted country. His early education was limited, for his parents were in straitened circumstances and he had to aid in the bread-winning. He had a few terms in an Ohio district school and a few months in the Ravenna high school. At eighteen he was a carpenter and soon after a supervisor of men of his craft. He found leisure spaces, as one always can if the desire is

strong, to follow up his studies begun at the high school and they opened so enticing a life that he abandoned the saw and the plane and determined to become a teacher. He began at twenty-one and with slight interruption spent the remainder of his active life in some form of educational work.

But this brief sketch cannot enter into the details of his development. It must suffice to say that he was discovered by two discerning men, who saw great things in the young carpenter and urged him to go to Massachusetts and prepare himself for the work that nature had cut out for him. He had little money, barely enough to get him there, but he went and bore letter that opened the way. That was all that he needed. The rest followed inevitably. He taught and studied and studied and taught. He graduated at Bridgewater and at the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute and the rest worked out without the formal guidance of teachers. He really had a great need of them. He began his normal teaching at Bridgewater and in 1854 was made temporary principal of the State Normal School at Salem. The next year his appointment was made permanent. In 1857 he came west and started the St. Louis City

## SCHOOL, AND HOME EDUCATION.

Normal School. Five years later he went to the presidency of the Illinois State Normal University where he served thirteen and a half years, retiring from the headship of the school to fill Owen Lovejoy's old pupit, at Princeton. After several years of delightful work he was obliged to retire on account of grave trouble with his eyes. He served for a time as the Agent for Knox College, was four years Superintendent of Public Instruction for Illinois, gave two years to the presidency of Blackburn University, and fifteen years ago returned to Bloomington to spend the remainder of his days within sight of the school where the great work of his most vigorous years was done.

It is not difficult to explain the great success that attended Dr. Edwards in whatever task he undertook. First of all, he had an unusual endowment of native ability. His mind was quick, keen and versatile. He acquitted himself brilliantly in all of the situations that engaged him. There was added to this happy gift a warm emotional nature. He was impulsive rather than judicial and was capable of great enthusiasms. Supplement these two qualities with an energy that was suggestive of the resistless tide of the sea and you have a trinity that laughs at obstacles. Because of the privations of his childhood and early youth the world of science, of art, and of letters was a delayed revelation, but when his quick spirit found his way into it he was enraptured with the vision. Those who were born on the high plateaus and to whom the great sweep of a landscape, as seen from a mountain top, is a familiar thing can never know

the ecstasy of an ardent soul that hungered and thirsted for the sun and at last finds itself tantalized longer with disappointing hope. There is to be no jog-trot in life thereafter. This pure air of the hills filled his lungs and gave him a sense of exhilaration and joy; the wide horizon bounded a great new world and invited him to a splendid career; let such a one become a teacher and he answered to the call, for he has found what he was intended for from the foundation of the world.

This was the man that some hundred and fifty of us found ourselves in contact with forty-five years ago last September, when we entered the Normal School. His enthusiasm for teaching suffused the whole institution. The atmosphere was surcharged with energy. He looked upon his calling as something sacred. He poured his life into it with copious prodigality. He was one of the old crusaders back again out of the past and gathering his followers about his standards. And everybody must have the glow in his face. Indifference was intolerable. Selfishness was not one of the seven deadly sins, it was all of them. He scorned the suggestion that anyone should ever think of himself when the interests of childhood, which were the interests of humanity, were at stake. It was not strange that the young men and young women who went out from the sphere of his influence should fancy that they had a mission and should be called idealists and enthusiasts and all that. If this seems a bit extravagant then ask some of the rest who were there and note what they will tell you.

Add to this a high degree of skill in the technic of the recitation. He was a master of the art of instruction. With the art of speech he joined the art of silence. While he could stir us at his will he made us stir ourselves. It was a rare example for the future teachers. There was no "coquettish self-complacency" over a piece of work that was consciously well done; there was too much fiery earnestness for that. And he clothed his subjects with a dignity that won for them the warm respect of his pupils, and that gave them a cultural value that few of them had ever suspected. He taught reading in such a way as to make it a careful study of literature. It is not too much to say that he revolutionized the teaching of that subject in the schools of Illinois, in part by his immediate instruction but more by the series of readers that embodied his methods. While he was extremely rigorous in his requirements he was at the same time genially sympathetic in a way that was delightful.

Another influence that should always be mentioned was the stimulation to growth which every Normal student who caught the spirit of the school carried with him to his work. It was a matter with one's conscience. Every day must witness some conscious expansion of knowledge and power. Was he out for an evening of entertainment? Before going to his rest he must read at least one more page of Latin or one more chapter of history—something must be done to make him more than he was or be confronted by the reproaches of his high ideal.

The faith which Dr. Edwards reposed in young men and young

women was so large that he did not hesitate to put them into places of grave responsibility. They must live or die. It was to be no half-hearted affair. He worked the year through regardless of the need of rest. Why should not they? And the energy that he gave us from the rostrum he held us up and shook the meannesses of life out of us! And we were cyclones, too, once in a while the energy ran wild occasionally then we all sat up very straight. These memories and many more picture against that background more than forty years ago that is startling in its vividness.

Dr. Edwards was in great demand as a public speaker and he enjoyed the full work of that character. It is natural that churches should seek him for a pastor. It was a sorrowful day at the school when he went away.

While he loved the knowledge he delighted to teach them they were ordained to his main purposes. In all else he taught young men and young women. It was always life, life,—its meaning, its dignities, its joys, its responsibility. A little incident once occurred that illustrates all; I beg a little space to tell it. He was undergoing his examination for ordination as a minister. In a seat I sat, an interested spectator was asked for his motive in entering the ministry. He answered by expressing his warm interest in the study and other occupations of a clergyman. But the answer was not what was expected. According to the form he should have said that it was zealous service to his fellow man, but his questions did not suggest it. F

the leading questioner said, "Dr. Edwards, are you not moved mainly by a desire to lead men and women to a better and a richer life?" He broke into a cheery laugh as he replied, "I have always been trying to do that."

His later life is a matter of public record. It was all well done. In his retirement he continued to be, what he could not help being—an energy for fine living. He was greatly beloved. The church of which he was a member saw most of him and heard him most frequently. He loved to visit the school where he had served so effi-

ently and was there but a few days before the end. At the semi-centennial anniversary last June he was a central figure. In a notable speech he said, "I love to be remembered here. I trust that you will speak of me when you meet." The next speaker was a member of his first class and one to whom he had been peculiarly a friend and benefactor. With a heart that was full of gratitude he said, "Forget you, Dr. Edwards! Not while memory holds her gracious empire in the soul." And so say we all of us, his grayhaired boys and girls.

### THE FOUNDATION OF ENGLISH.

(Continued from March Number.)

BY B. C. GREGORY, CHELSEA, MASS.

[NOTE: The classification of errors referred to as "Exhibit A" and "Exhibit B" will be found in the March number of *School and Home Education*. The entire discussion by Supt. Gregory has been put in pamphlet form and may be had by sending 15 cents to the Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.]

It will be borne in mind, I trust, that I am confining my attention to grammar. The earliest attention of a teacher, of course, should be given to matters which relate to the form of the composition, say margin, indentation, the beginning of a sentence with a capital and terminating with a period, and capitalization of pronoun *I*. I think these matters should be insisted on, at first, to the exclusion of considerations of grammar.

Let us now sum up. According to the showing of this paper there are just seven questions in grammar which should take the teacher's attention so far as correction of speech is concerned; the excessive use of connectives, 16 per cent.; the use of superfluous words, 15 per cent.; the relation of subject and predicate, 14 per cent.; errors in tense involving the imperfect and perfect for the most part, 18 per cent.; considerations relating to the antecedent of the pronoun, 8 per cent.; the possessive of the noun, 4 per cent.; and the misuse of prepositions, 5 per cent. Total, 80 per cent., leaving 20 per cent. of errors scattered variously through fifteen other considerations. Are not the limitations of the field and the character of the errors which make up the 80 per cent. instructive, not to say startling?

Here are the points of grammar that would be demanded: Conjunctions (copulative only); subject and

predicate; perfect, imperfect and present tenses of verb; relative pronoun in relation to antecedent; possessive nouns, prepositions. Here are six elementary considerations of grammar on which if we place careful and concentrated attention we shall clear up 80 per cent. of the errors.

Let no one say that to teach these matters we must also teach the other facts of grammar in order that we may understand them. Every teacher knows that except to a very trifling extent such a statement is not true. It is not necessary to teach mode to understand tense. To teach the imperfect tense of a verb it is simply necessary to teach the verb and then the tense. It is not necessary to teach the objective to understand the possessive. Some one may say that it is necessary to teach proper nouns in order that we may teach capitalization. Is that really so? Can't we say that the name of a person or a country should begin with a capital without teaching grammar? In a word, simplicity in teaching is imperative. Grammatical principles must be taught. They are best taught when too much is not attempted. It is not a question of how much, but a proper selection of material and of emphasis.

How much of a book could be made out of the seven considerations presented by this study, involving the afore-said six elementary considerations in grammar? Let us make such a book, with proper development and sufficient number of exercises; the book will hardly be thick enough to make it worth any publisher's while to publish it.

How much grammar is left out? It would try the patience of any reader if I should answer this question. In the Trenton course of study, which I issued four years ago, I wrote as follows: "The pupil when he reaches this (seventh) grade should be able to recognize the parts of speech and should know simply definitions. He should know the modifications of the noun, pronoun and verb (except modes, tenses and voice), and the functions of the adverb, adjective, preposition and conjunction; he should understand the construction of a simple sentence and be able to analyze it, and should understand the compound subject and predicate." I thought when I wrote this paragraph I was exceedingly conservative, but the paragraph makes me smile. There is scarcely a statement in it that is not contradicted by the present paper. If the conclusions of this paper are to be trusted it is not necessary to recognize the parts of speech and to know the modifications of a noun, pronoun and verb, nor the functions of the adverb and adjective, nor the compound subject and predicate; and in the same paragraph

where I have said it is not necessary to understand tenses, I must now say it is necessary to understand two tenses. So much for theory.

Another illustration is the following paragraph (sixth grade); it reads as follows: "Teach the modifications of noun and pronoun; person, number, gender and case. Teach nouns as common and proper. Teach the classes of pronouns. Drill in the use of *who*, *which*, *what*, *whose* and *whom*, with reference to the errors made in their use." If I had to write that paragraph again, I think I would observe the language of bills introduced in the Legislature to dispose of certain laws. They don't attack the body of the law. They simply strike out the enacting clause. The paragraph is all right if before the word "teach" you insert the word "don't."

It may be objected that in the foregoing sketch of a course of study my order of introducing what I have styled the essential errors is arbitrary. Somewhat, but not absolutely. I offer figures. Look at Exhibit D. The per cents. there given are found by dividing the number of errors of a given kind in a grade by the whole number of errors in

## EXHIBIT D.

## GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF ERRORS WITH PERCENTAGES.

(See Exhibit B. (Error 43 not included.)

## I. ESSENTIAL ERRORS.

<i>First Class.</i>	<i>Connectives.</i>	<i>Grade</i>	4	5	6	7	8
a. Extravagant use of connectives, .....			20	13	16	14	6
b. Two errors in sentence formation (5 and 1)....			18	16	12	11	7
c. Two errors in form of verb (23 and 24).....			22	15	14	19	10
Total per cent., .....			60	44	42	44	23
<i>Second Class.</i>							
a. Antecedents, .....			5	8	10	8	11
b. Possessive nouns, .....			4	6	4	6	4
c. Prepositions, .....			4	7	4	6	6
Total per cent., .....			13	21	18	19	21
II. SUBORDINATE ERRORS. (All on Exhibit B except the above and No. 43. Fifteen errors.)							
Total per cent., .....			15	23	18	20	16

that grade. Notice that I have considered in this exhibit: (1) essential errors, those we have just been considering (the full-faced type errors of Exhibit B), and (2) subordinate errors, namely, the errors in italics on Exhibit B. I desire to confine your attention to (1). I have subdivided these errors into two classes, each containing three kinds of errors. Notice that I can do so, because even in the so-called essential errors there is a very clearly marked dividing line expressed by the figures. So far as percentages go, the three members of each section belong where I have placed them. The figures in the first class are generally large and in the second generally small.

## SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

I think that two important considerations emerge from an inspection of this table. First, the popularity of error is all on the side of the first class of errors, and you know, I have assumed that popularity of error should be an important indication in determining the order in which error should be taken up, the purpose being to get the great mass of error out of the way.

My second consideration involves a rather curious inquiry. Notice in the first class of errors, considering total per cents., that there is a general diminution of error as you go up the grades. The diminution is irregular (and this irregularity will come up for consideration at a later stage in this discussion), but the drop is clear and positive. But in the second class there is no gain. There is a loss. We jump from 13 per cent. in the fourth grade to 21 per cent. in the fifth grade, and there we practically stay. Let me offer a hypothesis to explain this striking condition of things. In dealing with the first class of errors, we are successful in part, even under present methods of teaching, and that fact shows that such errors lend themselves easily to treatment. The presumption is, therefore, that if we concentrate we can do much more. I think that is a fair inference. But in dealing with the second class of errors, note that we make no progress. If we made a little progress we could hope that with concentration they would admit of treatment. But we lose ground. The inference would seem to be that here is a class of errors to be postponed to a more advanced stage of development and to time when we shall be free to take them by themselves. At least, it seems reasonable that a class of errors which evidently admit of treatment should be considered earlier than a class where the possibility of treatment is very much less evident. I think this table goes far toward justifying my order of treatment.

Now for the subordinate errors, the 20 per cent. of scattering errors which occur in the groups of Exhibit B, which I have been discussing. They are the italicized errors.

Can these errors be ignored? I answer unhesitatingly, so far as formal teaching is concerned, yes; and I make this answer in the interests of concentration. There may be correction of such errors, of course, but it should be of the most incidental character, not as a rule to be learned nor a fact to be accounted for. Would I let the pupil go on making mistakes in these matters, as, for instance, the number of the verb, when the subject is compound, or the double negative, or *lie* for *lay*? Yes, that is precisely what I would do. Recall, by way of illustration, this sage suggestion from ex-



perienced teachers in the matter of discipline: "Don't see all the wrong things that are going on in your classroom; be conveniently blind sometimes. There are some teachers who note everything. There are other teachers who see everything, but don't look at everything. The wise teacher sooner or later ranges himself in the latter class. He knows that many things will correct themselves and do not need his attention. Here we have a principle that holds good also in the acquisition of learning; a principle which many and many a teacher does not know, namely, that there is a lot of things that children will learn without anybody's help. Dr. J. M. Rice, in his excellent essay on spelling, makes this very sage remark: "There are many words belonging to maturer years, easy to spell when the time for their introduction occurs." Why isn't this true as regards grammar?

Again, teachers leave out of account this great principle that there is such a thing as a trained power of observation, that in teaching any subject there ought always to be two requirements, one the facts, and the other the power of acquiring facts by one's self. For instance, referring to spelling, the teacher errs if she expects a child to learn in school all the words he is ever going to use. Every rational teacher knows that a comparatively limited vocabulary is the outcome of the school course. Subsequent acquirements are to grow out of a trained power of observation. This means that the power of taking in the image of the word rapidly and accurately must be acquired. If this end be attained, the actual vocabulary of the pupil is a subordinate matter. He then has the power of accurate seeing and accurate power of expression of what he sees. Now, in language, whether English or French, the same psychological state of things exists.

Again, in teaching one thing, we unconsciously teach another; that is to say, in all good teaching there is a tendency to accuracy and even to a knowledge which exists beyond the thing taught. Dr. Hill, former State Agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, very felicitously described this phenomenon as the "gracious overflow." If one exercises his right arm for three months, and neglects his left arm, he will find at the end of that time that while his right arm has made a great gain in strength, his left arm has also made some gain. The same principle holds in intellectual activity. To our surprise, we often find that matters that we have not taught at all, but which have some simi-

larity to matters that we have taught, are just as well acquired as the latter class.

Therefore, I am optimistic and look for a constant diminution of these subordinate errors as a result of what I may describe as incidental teaching. I believe, for instance, that the double negative, of which we have 1 per cent. in our eight thousand five hundred odd errors, could be all but extinguished, and *lie* and *lay* would settle themselves, not through teaching, but through suggestion, if a *habit of mind toward accuracy in essentials* could be formed, which I have claimed is the most important outcome of teaching. This, of course, is a theory. But the teacher of grammar is now a theorist, and often a hopeless theorist. If existing theories came out anywhere, we might urge them with more confidence. But look at Exhibit D. In the last line all these subordinate, non-essential errors now under discussion are grouped. In the fourth grade they furnish 15 per cent. of the errors, and in the eighth, 16 per cent. In the intervening grades the percentages are higher. No great success here, is there? We couldn't do much worse.

But the principal answer to the contention of the teacher that these subordinate errors, as well as the more important errors, must be taught specifically is this. The facts show that children do not make these errors, that is to say, they make them so seldom that there is no opportunity to give requisite practice in their correction. What is the use of correcting an error which a child doesn't make. To give the requisite practice we must get up a very artificial state of things and bring about these errors. Is that a very philosophical course of procedure? I mean this, that we must not only have precept, but example, and it is just as bad pedagogy in the teaching of language as it is in the teaching of morals to suppose wicked things for the sake of correcting them.

One more consideration at this point, which, perhaps, will allay the fears of the hypersensitive teacher who can't pass over a single error. If errors are made so seldom that we don't get any chance to correct them, they are not made often enough to form a habit, so it's about as well not to worry. Seriously this word habit is the keynote to the whole discussion. The purpose of teaching grammar, so far as its use in speaking and writing is concerned, is to break bad habits and prevent the formation of new ones. Bad habits need practice, and if practice is impossible, the habit, at best, is improbable.

(To be continued.)



*Photographed by F. M. Fultz.*

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GLACIER-PLANED LIMESTONE NEAR KINGSTON, DES MOINES CO., IOWA.

**W**hat would indicate that the glacier did not move constantly in one direction, but changed its course? Did it change its course more than once? Which grooves were made last? What shows that the soil in the banks is drift?

### THE UPPER MISSISSIPPI REGION\*.

ITS LANDSCAPES AND ITS SOILS.

BY F. M. FULTZ, BURLINGTON, IOWA.

(Continued from March Number.)

While the landscape of rolling prairies, rounded hill-slopes, broad valleys, and wooded lowlands may be taken as the distinctive type of the region, yet there is some diversity, and there are certain localities where the surface features are entirely different. Such are the Driftless Area of Wisconsin and Iowa, already spoken of, and the Lake Region of Minnesota.

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In the Driftless Area rock pinnacles abound. The soil is clay that came from the rotting down of the local rock and is entirely different from that of the drift regions. The borders of the Area are where the ancient glaciers halted in their forward march, or where the flank of the ice-sheet touched as it moved by on either side to the southward. It seems almost as if the Driftless Area, with its bold rock towers and pinnacles was purposely left untouched by the glacier in order that we might know what this whole region once looked like in ancient times.

A strip of country beginning in the northwest part of Wisconsin and extending westward nearly across the

from St. Paul and Minneapolis pass through this picturesque country, and looking from the car window the traveler notes at once the contrast to the scenery in Iowa and Illinois. If he knows that the glacier helped shape the more southern landscape, he will be interested in learning that the Lake Region, too, owes its existence to the same agency. These thousands of lakes are hemmed in by the clay and rocks dumped there by a glacier, a glacier that existed perhaps not half so long ago as that which devastated the land of southern Iowa and central Illinois, yet one whose time in the past must be numbered by thousands, perhaps tens of thousands, of years. The front



*Photographed by Warren Upham.*

VIEW IN THE LAKE REGION OF MINNESOTA.

central part of Minnesota is known as "The Lake Region." Here are the headwaters of the Mississippi. It is estimated the area contains not less than ten thousand lakes. The railroads running to the north and northwest

this old glacier was very irregular, and lingered long in the region where the lakes now are, dumping much clay and rock waste, and leaving behind the broken and irregular lines of morainic material many depressions where water



*Photographed by I. A. Williams.*

**LOAM LYING DIRECTLY ON DRIFT.**

**In what ways does the loam seem to differ from the drift? The loam here is probably three feet deep. Is the land in this region apt to be rich or poor?**

s collected and formed lakes. These  
ces have outlets, and frequently a  
umber are connected and have a com-  
n outlet. But the region is so flat  
t the streams have not deepened  
r channels rapidly and but few of  
lakes have been drained in the nat-  
process of working out a drainage  
m. The outlets of many of the  
flow only at the time of the melt-  
of the snows, and during seasons  
cessive rainfall.

ere is also another small lake re-  
on the line separating Minnesota  
owa which was similarly formed,  
an older glacier. But here the  
g out of the natural drainage  
has proceeded much farther, so  
s are not so frequent and there  
y lake beds left dry by the con-  
ing up by the soil washed in,

and the gradual cutting down of the  
channel of the outlet. These dry lake  
beds are some of the finest farming  
land in the world.

The wealth of the region is in its soil,  
which is of several different kinds.  
Drift, loam, loess, sand and alluvium  
are the principal ones. Each deserves  
description somewhat in detail, —  
where it came from, what it is like and  
the crop it is best adapted for.

Something has already been said of  
the drift,—that it is a hard, compact  
clay full of rock fragments. It is  
spread all over the region, (excepting  
the Driftless Area), reaching to the  
Missouri river and in some places a lit-  
tle beyond, and as far south in Illinois  
as a line running east from St. Louis.  
It lies just as the glacier left it, often  
on the hard rock from which the gla-



Photographed by F. A. M. & Fultz.

A BLUFF OF DRIFT.

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==

What seems to indicate that this bluff is all-drift?

ci-er had first scraped all the loose material and then ground down as level as a floor. If we could strip all the drift from some large area of level country we would see this hard rock floor extending sometimes for long distances. When the Chicago Drainage Canal was dug, this flat glacier-ground rock floor was uncovered in many places.

Taking the whole region, the drift will probably average not less than 50 feet in depth. Towards the south it is much thinner than this, but in Wisconsin and Minnesota it frequently reaches 200 feet or more. It is quite generally covered with loam, and usually is seen at the surface only along the bluffs which border the streams. Yet it is nearly everywhere very close to the surface. A well dug on the prairie will be

mostly in the drift. Even in digging a cellar it is nearly always reached.

On account of its close, compact nature it makes an excellent bed for the loam to lie upon, for it allows the moisture in the ground to drain away but slowly. It takes moisture slowly, but retains it well, thus acting as a reservoir in a time of drouth. The structure of the drift is such that when it is thoroughly saturated with water, it slips and slides easily. This is why bluffs of it are always sloping. It is the cause, too, of many terraces slipping.

On account of it being so seldom the top soil, the drift is used very little for the cultivation of crops. This is fortunate, for while it contains much plant food, it is very difficult to till, and ordinary plants and vegetables find trou-

ting at the food which it does

The most useful purpose of is to act as an underlying res- r the loam.

am is a black soil that is made lriift or the local rock waste omposed vegetable matter. In it you may see the making of ntly going on. The fallen d dead branches and prostrate

course of many years the swamps are thus filled up, and their outlets being continually cut deeper, in time they become dry land covered with a thick layer of rich soil. Many swamps are artificially drained in order to get the land for farms.

Loam is the most productive of all the soils, and because Illinois and Iowa are almost completely covered with it,



*Photographed by A. S. Williams.*

**VIEW ON LAKE MINNETONKA.**

What kind of soil-forming is going on here?

f trees are ever rotting and o the covering of vegetable id the roots of the growing id the burrowing bugs and osen the soil below. The loam ig, too, in swamps where nd other water plants are con- ying and sinking to the bot- ther with the fine particles of hich settle from the water in by the streams. In the

they comprise the finest corn region in the world. Loam, however, is easily drained of its moisture, and it owes much of its productiveness in this region to the drift upon which it dies, and which, as previously noted, holds moisture well. The loam varies much in thickness, from a few inches to several feet. It does not rest directly upon the hard, compact drift, but usually blends with it through a foot or more of sub-

soil that is clayey in its nature, but which is much looser than the drift. This sub-soil is the first soil that formed on top of the drift, mixed with the drift, largely through the agency of roots and earthworms.

There is but little loam found on steep hillsides, because it washes away easily, and the rains will not allow it to accumulate. But out on the more

of loess. This is a fine-grained soil, usually light yellow or cream color, much looser than the drift, but more compact than loam. Its structure is entirely different, too. Banks of drift or loam will slip when water-soaked. But loess will stand for a long time, even as a perpendicular wall. It is only found on the high bluffs bordering the streams, and is always more extensive



Photographed by F. M. Fultz.

**A BLUFF OF LOESS.**

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In what ways does this differ from a bluff of drift?

level prairies, it is sometimes several feet thick, because it was allowed to accumulate there undisturbed. It is probable that either a forest once grew there, or else it was a marsh. However, there are some people who believe that the loam on the prairies may have come from the decaying grasses, flowers, and weeds during the long period since the time of the glacier.

Along the Mississippi and its principal tributaries there are deep deposits

on the east bluff than on the west. There are different theories about its origin. One of the most reasonable is that after the glacier melted away, the country was a great mud plain; this gradually dried on the surface and the winds sweeping over it gathered up great quantities of dust and piled it up along the streams. But some people think that it was deposited as the glacier retreated and that the water coming from the melting glacier had something to do with it.



## SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

Wherever the loess came from, it does not lie in great stretches like the drift or the loam. It is even not continuous along the streams. But where it does occur it is usually many feet thick. Strange, too, it is deepest on the very highest bluffs. While it is a better soil than drift, it is not as rich as loam, and is not suitable for corn and many other farm crops. It is best adapted for fruit raising and is considered the finest of all soils for grapes. Hence the high bluffs along the Mississippi are in many places covered with vineyards.

The sandy soils of the region are mostly connected with the flood-plains of the rivers. If it is nearly pure sand,

But an examination will always show that they are occupying a place where once there was a stream. It is not unusual to find such places bordered by a sand ridge which the wind piled up thousands of years ago. Sand produces the finest melons and sweet potatoes, but to insure a good crop, frequent rains are needed. The soil drains rapidly and the evaporation from its surface is fast.

There remains yet the alluvial soil of the flood-plains to be mentioned. This soil is composed of the fine silt which a stream deposits on its flood-plain when it is out of its banks. It is made up of very fine sand, clay and



Graphed by F. M. Fuhr.

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Looking up the Mississippi from the High Bluffs at Burlington, Iowa, showing Lowlands and Islands. The soil is sand and alluvium. Where is the sand? Where the alluvium?

one of the older deposits of the plains and usually lies along the foot of the bordering bluffs above the level of the highest stage of water of recent time. There are some deposits of sand found on the upland.

loam that have been washed into the river from the upland, and decomposed vegetable matter of all kinds. It is exceedingly rich and will produce big crops of corn and vegetables. However, where it is not protected from

## SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

flow by levees, the floods that usually come late in the spring and which frequently continue far into the summer, may keep it covered until the time of planting is past. Thus frequently there are seasons when there is no crop at all. It is only on the higher parts of the flood-plain that regular farming is carried on.

Most of the flood-plains of the Upper Mississippi are so narrow that so far only a few of them are protected by levees. They are still largely covered by lowland timber and are much cut up by sloughs and shallow lakes that occupy old channels where once the river flowed.

### SOME FIELD AND EXPERIMENTAL WORK.

#### I.

Look for a granite boulder that is rotting down. Sometimes you will find one which is decaying so fast that you can dig into it with your fingers.

Pick out the fragments that are going to become sand and gravel. Crush



Photographed by F. M. Fultz. All Rights Reserved.  
A GRANITE BOWLDER THAT IS ROTTING DOWN.

Why is there more rock waste on the upper side than on the down-hill side?

some of these with a hammer to see if they will make sand.

Are any of the fragments of a clayey nature?

Can you find any flakes of mica?

Sift some of the finely decayed material in the wind and watch what becomes of the mica.

Is mica likely to be found in all soils?

#### II.

Make a collection of drift, loam, sub-soil (lying between the drift and the loam), sand, gravel and alluvium; and wherever it is possible, of loess. Get as pure samples as possible.

Place about the same amount of each sample in separate glasses containing or 6 times as much water. Stir them all thoroughly. While they are settling, watch them carefully.

In which glass will the water remain clear however much you stir it?

Which will be the first of the others to become clear? Why?

Note which is the last to clear. Reason out why.

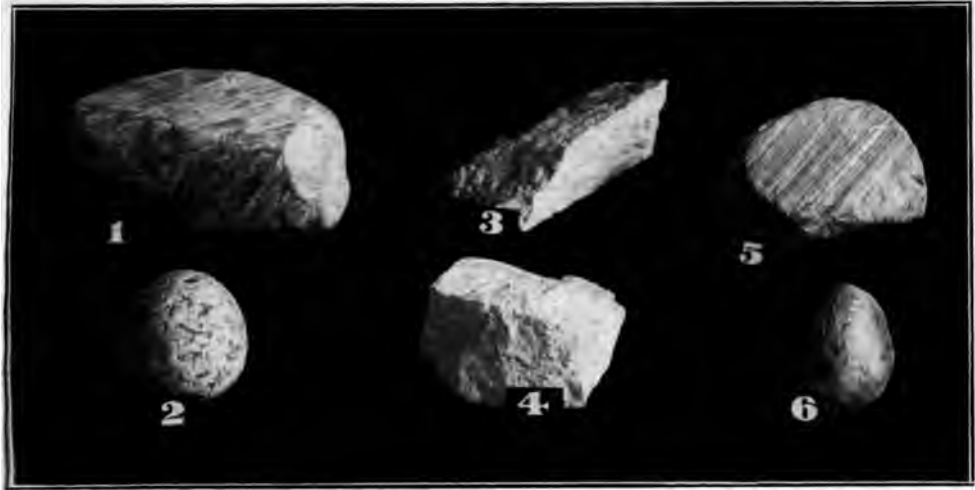
Which has the most sediment clinging to the sides of the glass? What does this show?

#### III.

Find a pile of fresh clay where a cellar is being excavated, a well being dug, or the grading of a road is going on. Watch the sorting of material that takes place during a rain when rivulets of water are cutting into the soft earth.

Where is the coarse material found: near the heap of earth, or farther away?

How far away may some of the material be carried?



Photographed by F. M. Fultz.

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Of these fragments, which are from the drift? Why? Which are from a creek bed?  
Which are freshly broken pieces?

See how many different grades of material (as to fineness) you can find.

Find a pool or mudhole into which some of the soil is washed and where it is allowed to settle undisturbed. Af-

ter the water has evaporated and the mud dried, cut down through the dried earth carefully and find whether it is in layers. Account for the different layers.

### THE OUT OF DOORS.

From twilight-saddened reverie, from chart and thin-leaved  
book,  
From memory of music, from low voice and haunting look,  
To one brown road I turn me, where a wealth of beauty  
pours  
Upon my troubled spirit from the joyous Out of Doors.

The long, lean road climbs northward, where, black-edged  
against the sky,  
With countless bright eyes winking all the droning factories  
lie;  
The happy wires sing o'er me, and afar an engine bell  
Cuts through the city's humming with a loud triumphant  
swell.

O one by one the stars come out, then on the left and right  
In every miner's cottage blooms a little steady light.  
A moment yet I wonder, then afar my spirit soars  
One with the joyous rapture of the joyous Out of Doors.

—Mabel Fletcher.

## A BLUE GRASS VACATION.

BY JAMES SPEED.

### *Stings, Springs and Summer Day-Dreams.*

DEAR DOUGLAS:—We are awfully sorry about one thing, Doug, that we didn't think of at first. We are sending you all kinds of pictures, but we can't think of a way to get any of the cave for you. We could take the pictures, you know, but Uncle Ed would have to develop them for us. So there we are. He would know all about it then, and that would spoil the fun. I hope we can tell you about it in a way that will make you see what a jolly burrow it is going to be. I wonder if the teacher wouldn't give us a hundred mark on English composition next term if we gave in such a description? She ought to for it is no easy thing to do.

I have been exploring these old hills by myself for a day or two because Toss got the worst of a set-to with the wasps. One morning we went to look at those up-side-down babies. Toss fooled with the nest when the old wasp was there. He forgot she had a business end for fighting until she stung him over the eye. Then he let out a yell and came rolling down the hay looking like a bundle of arms and legs. The old wasp stung him twice on the leg while he rolled fifteen feet.

Bill Harris, the old darkey whose picture we sent you, ran in and told Toss: "You des go out thar to do howse trough, whar de water spills han-ful of mud an' stick make you

May be I can tell you some things we do here so you can see them, but you would have to see Bill Harris with your own eyes and hear him talk to really know him.

The mud was a good thing for Toss all right. Just you remember it when you get stung. Toss' eye didn't swell any more, much, but it was swelled nearly shut by the time he got to the trough.



*Photographed by the Author.*

I enclose a picture of one of the places I like to go to when exploring. There is a cool spring and it bubbles up so that it keeps the sand jumping. The rocks make an almost regular line of steps to walk on up the glen. They are very delapidated, though, and the castle to which they lead, if there ever was one, is gone entirely. Perhaps it is covered up by the hills. Wouldn't it be great to find an old castle under the hills for our cave? Yours,



*Photographed by the Author.*

### *Some Fluffy Babies.*

DEAR DOUGLAS:—Five days ago as Jack and I were going to the cave through the wheat field, we saw a couple of turkey buzzards. They were sailing high up among the big soft fluffy clouds and we stopped to watch them. The birds didn't look very big, but as we stood there they began to grow bigger and bigger. Jack said:

"Toss, suppose we go back to the edge of the woods and sit down and watch these birds. I always did wonder how they could sail along like big kites without any strings to them."

They sailed down almost over our heads, then swept up over the trees on the cliff and one of them went in among the trees. It didn't come out again, and I said,

"I'm sure there's something dead up there, a rabbit or squirrel, suppose we climb up and see the buzzard on the ground."

It was a hard climb up to where the rocky part of the hill comes. I believe we could have gotten close but Jack stepped on a loose stone and it went crashing down the hill. The buzzard sailed out over the trees. We kept on climbing and at last, as Jack was crawl-

ing under a dead tree that lay up against the cliff, he yelled,

"Come on and see what I've found."

Do you know he had found a buzzard's nest. I call it a buzzards' nest, but you will see from the photo that it was just two big speckled eggs under a ledge of rock where the rain couldn't beat in. We didn't write you about it then because we wanted to send you a photo of the babies when they came out. Jack and I had heard Bill Harris say they were white and fluffy, but we thought he was fooling us. You will see from the photo that Bill didn't tell us any darky fairy story that time. They are fluffy and white all right. When Jack crawled under and found them, he called back,



*Photographed by the Author.*

"Toss, they look almost exactly like the powder puff mother uses."

Too sleepy to write any more tonight.

Yours,

Toss.

"Next morning."

P. S.—The "fly-up-the-creeks," the fisherman's babies, are growing ever so fast. Those last pictures we sent you showed them fuzzy. Look at the one in this letter. He looks almost like a grown up bird. They can't fly yet, but can climb all over the tree. Yesterday



*Photographed by the Author.*

when we were trying to get this picture, the young bird jumped about two feet to the small branches of another apple tree in the orchard. He went into five trees, before we got his photo.

Toss.

#### *Plans.*

DEAR DOUGLAS:—Toss has been writing you so much about the birds and their nests, telling you how they look and about the eggs and the babies. We find that the birds are so different in the way they build the nests and where they build them that we asked Uncle Ed the reason for the difference. He's a great fellow, as we have told you, to help us see things right. When we asked him he laughed and said,

"Just put down on a piece of paper about every nest you find. Tell what it is made of, its shape—everything. Then try to reason it out for yourselves. If you get tangled come to me."

We are going to try it. Will send you a list some time later and you can

look over the pictures we have sent you. We will take some more for you, also, and you can study the photos. See if you can get the answer as soon as we can.

The wheat has grown ever so high, some of the stalks are almost even with my head. In the last day or so it has begun to get a little bit yellow. That means that it won't be long until it is ready to cut. Uncle Ed promised that we boys can help shock the wheat.



*Photographed by the Author.*

The cave is going into the old clay bank almost every day now. By day after tomorrow we ought to be far enough back to begin on the big room. You see we had to make the opening of the cave down behind the willows, and make it little and low. Even when you know there is a cave you have to pull the willows apart to see it at all.

But the bluff isn't so steep there. It slopes back a good deal. So we have to dig this low entrance a long way into the bank before we can raise the top of the passage and begin on the big room. It is going to be more of a job than we thought it would be to dig this out. Wouldn't it be splendid if we should happen to dig into that old ca-

it ought to be buried under these  
-the castle to which the rock  
in the glen might have led you  
? No such good luck though.

I've got a new blister. When it gets  
well I'll have a corn at the bottom of  
each finger. Then I ought to be able  
to work all right. Yours,

JACK.

### NATURE WORK IN THE SCHOOLS.

BY J. K. STABLETON.



my last article I told of gather-  
he frog eggs, hatching them, and  
g for the tadpoles. The first pic-  
in this article is of tadpoles in  
rooms at the Lincoln school. They  
be one year old in April. At the

close of school last June, a part of  
them were taken home by one of the  
school girls, the others by one of the  
teachers. At the opening of school in  
September they were returned to the  
school-rooms where they have re-  
mained ever since.

During the Christmas vacation the  
janitor neglected his fires and every-  
thing in this building was frozen. The  
tadpoles did not escape. They were  
dark spots in solid blocks of ice. Pu-  
pils and teachers thought they were  
dead, but as the ice melted the tadpoles  
began to wiggle, none the worse for  
their sleep in the ice.

This picture was obtained by taking  
them out of the water and placing them  
on a sheet of drawing paper.

Our aquariums for all the primary  
rooms are now ready for the first frog  
eggs the boys or girls may find in the  
ponds on the outskirts of the city. A  
close watch will be kept for the eggs as  
the days warm up.

The second picture shows the chil-  
dren in one of our first grade primary  
rooms filling their paper cornucopias  
with earth and planting seed in them.  
One of the boys is holding his cornu-  
copia over the bucket of earth and is  
about to fill it. A small garden trowel  
is used for this. As soon as he fills it  
about half full he drops in the seeds,  
then enough earth is added to cover  
them properly. On the chair between



him and the teacher is a box in which the cornucopias are placed as soon as they have received the earth and the seed. Just over the shoulder of the second boy you can see a number of cornucopias already placed in the box. Other children are standing waiting their turn while those at their seats are ready to come forward at the call of the teacher. After all the cornucopias have been planted and placed in the box, the box will be put in one of the windows where there is plenty of sunshine. Then from day to day the pupils and teacher will together care for the window garden and study the development of plants from the seed.

A copy of the following suggestions was given each teacher to assist her in the work:

*Window Gardens—Primary Grades.*

(A) Seeds that may be given out to first four grades for window boxes are: pumpkin, squash, lima beans, peas, corn, and watermelon. Any others, such as apple seed, peach seed (cracked) may be used also, if the teacher can supply them.

Points to be observed in connection with the window gardens:

1. Name of each child should be on his cornucopia.
2. Date of planting should be written on \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ seeds from differ-

ent boxes and have children note the number of days in sprouting. The time will depend on the sunshine and degree of warmth given each box.

4. From day to day observe the manner in which the different plants come through the ground.

5. The different ways of disposing of the cotyledons, or seed leaves, or food reservoirs.

6. Use the growing plants, root, and all parts, for drawing studies.

7. Have the children note the different ways in which the beans and the corn put forth new leaves as they lengthen their stems above ground.

8. All boxes to be planted by April 5.

(B) Seeds not in the window boxes:

1. Moisten some lima beans so they will begin to burst their coats, but do not soak them in water, then give each child a bean and help him to see the little plant just ready to begin to grow. I said not to soak the beans in water. When placed in water the oxygen is shut off and they begin to decay instead of to grow. Dip the beans in water; or put them on a moist blotter and place another moist blotter over them; or place them in moist cotton; or keep them moist in any way that may be most convenient for you.

Before giving out these instructions or suggestions, the superintendent spent an hour talking over the work with the teachers and calling on them for any suggestions that any of them might be able to give from their past experience.

The cornucopias are used in order that each pupil may feel that he has his own individual part in the window garden; and a little later that he may



ke his plants home to be put out in e home garden. The cornucopias e packed in the box and a filling of wdust or earth is used about them to ep them moist.

primary grade to a particular kind of seed. We believe it better to encourage the pupils in each primary grade to observe several kinds of sprouting seeds and growing plants at the same time.



The third picture shows a somewhat different plan of caring for the cornucopias. It is a plan originated by the teacher herself and is an admirable one. She requested each child to bring to school a tin fruit can with the top or its rim melted off. Then as a class exercise, each one covered his can with a sheet of drawing paper that had been used, turning the painted side in towards the can. Then each pupil painted his papered can a light green. The work was neatly done and the cans, as a result, lost all their unsightly appearance. Then instead of packing the cornucopias in the box, each pupil placed three or four in his own can where they are kept moist. The cans are not inverted in the bottoms so no moisture can escape to soil the window sill or the desk on which they may stand in the school room. This is a second grade room.

In giving out the seeds for the window gardens we have not confined any

rather than to confine each grade to a particular class. The fact that for two or three or even four years, the pupils plant the same kinds of seeds in no way takes from the interest nor from the value of the work. With the increasing intelligence of the pupils from year to year, they learn new lessons from this observation and study of plant life. What can be accomplished with pupils in the first year is only an intimation of what pupils of the fourth year may gain from the same window garden.

We aim to plant the window gardens so that they will come on just a few days in advance of the out-door gardens in order that the aroused powers of observation may unconsciously be transferred from the window garden to the out-door garden.

#### *Distribution of Seeds and Plants for Home Garden.*

About the first of May each year we give out aster seed to the pupils in the

grades with a printed slip of instruction headed "How to Grow Asters." Last year we gave out one pound of Semple's late branching asters. This year we will give out at least one and one-quarter pounds of the same seed. One pound will make about twenty-five hundred packets of seed each containing from fifty to seventy seeds. We buy them in solid colors and mix the colors. It is not a very difficult task to fill three thousand or more packets. The seed can be poured out on a smooth table, then with a ruler or knife separated into piles the relative size of which will depend on the number of rooms in each building to which the seed are to be sent. At each building the principal with the aid of some of the older pupils, separates them into the amounts for each room. It is then no task at all for the teacher of each room to fill thirty-five or forty packets for the pupils in her room. The little envelopes for this purpose cost almost nothing. Printed instructions given out with each packet of aster seed:

*How to Grow Asters.*

Dig up and finely pulverize a bed of earth two feet square. Sow the seed in rows six inches apart covering them about one-eighth of an inch deep with fine soil. Press the soil down. As soon as the plants have six or eight leaves each, transplant them to a sunny place in the yard or garden, setting them four inches apart in the rows, and putting the rows eighteen inches apart.

Keep them well cultivated, free from weeds, and the surface always broken into finely pulverized soil to retain the moisture. This can be done by raking over the surface with a hoe or rake once or twice a week.

The seed can be sown in boxes or pots and by thinning out the plants, leaving only two or three in a pot, or about the same proportion in a box, they make the finest of plants for porch or window gardens as they bloom freely under these conditions.

In the grammar grades, in addition to the aster seed we give out about two

thousand Grand Pacific tomato plants. These plants are grown in one of our "pits" or green-houses. The tomato seed for these plants is from the prize tomatoes brought each September to the School Exhibit. At the present time we have more than two thousand plants that will be ready for distribution by the latter part of April or the first of May.

In the lower grades the pupils are, also, given flax, hemp, and cotton seed for home planting. The fiber to be used in schools the coming year.

In September soon after school opens, we have an exhibit of the products from the home garden. Prizes are sometimes, though not always given. The fact that each exhibitor has his name on his exhibit is a reward in itself. The following are the instructions for the exhibit which were given the pupils last September. These instructions were printed by our Ed—wards school boys on the school press

ASTER EXHIBIT

HIGH SCHOOL

SEPTEMBER 20 AND 21, 1907

*Aster Exhibit.*

The following prizes will be given:

\$1.00 for the finest dozen of white asters, 50 cents for the second, and 25 cents for the third.

\$1.00 for the finest dozen of light pink asters, 50 cents for the second, and 25 cents for the third.

\$1.00 for the finest dozen dark pink asters, 50 cents for the second, and 25 cents for the third.

\$1.00 for the finest dozen of purple asters, 50 cents for the second, and 25 cents for the third.

\$1.00 for the finest dozen lavender asters, 50 cents for the second, and 25 cents for the third.

The prize asters are to be in bunches of one dozen each. The stems are to be not less than eight inches in length.

Each bunch is to be in a quart glass fruit can. The name of the exhibitor is to be attached to the can.

## WHY NEED ENGLISH COMPOSITION BE A BUGBEAR?

MARGARET H. J. LAMPE.

## III

## SENIOR THEMES.

Graduating essays or "senior themes" are usually a heavy burden to teacher and pupil alike. The choice of a subject is often a matter of great difficulty. Years ago a very able superintendent gave to his teachers a practical demonstration that may prove equally suggestive to others troubled by "hard cases."

Tom had scornfully rejected every subject proposed by any of the teachers. Either it was "I'm not going to put the audience to sleep by resurrecting the same old Greeks and Romans I've heard about at every Commencement since I can remember," or "No, I won't write on any of your live questions of the day that all the political speakers have threshed over for the last year," or "No, and I'm not going to make a fool of myself by airing my views on 'Success' or 'Happiness' before I've had any, nor by giving a lot of valuable advice of any sort to the audience."

And so it went on till late in May Tom was still without a subject and was in a most "balky" frame of mind because he had been told he could not be allowed to graduate without writing an acceptable theme.

Finally the case was appealed to Supt. K. As it happened, by a strange coincidence (?) Tom's chum Jack had also failed to hand in a graduating essay to the teacher in charge and was likewise sent to the Superintendent for discipline. That gentleman, after hearing both sides of the cases, made short

work of his decision. "Now boys," he said brusquely, "this is Thursday. You will hand in your essays to me on Monday morning. I shall excuse you from school tomorrow to give you time enough." "But we haven't chosen any subjects yet," pleaded Tom. "It's too late for you to choose. You've lost the privilege of doing that. You will write on topics of my choosing. You, Tom, will take the 7:10 train tomorrow morning, go to R— (a town twenty miles away), and put in the day making observations at the new beet sugar factory there. Jack, you go on the 7:30 train to T— and visit the new tin mine. I'll give each of you a note to the superintendent in charge. Make full notes while there and then put in your day Saturday writing a clear account of what you've seen and heard." "Won't you please excuse Charlie from school tomorrow so he can go with me?" asked Jack. "No," said Supt. K. sternly. "You're not going for fun, young man; you go alone and work hard for the next two days. Not a word more from either of you. I expect two good themes laid on this desk at 9 o'clock on Monday morning." And they were.

Some years later it fell to my lot to teach a senior class in English Literature. This included general supervision of the graduating essays. In that particular town there existed a tradition to the effect that for ages these literary productions had been constructed like mosaics, all the uncles, aunts, older

brothers and sisters, cousins and intimate friends contributing brilliant paragraphs wherewith to dazzle the audience. I resolved to break the time-(dis)honored custom by having the work done under my very eyes. Needless to say, my purpose was not explained to the pupils.

The subjects were chosen in personal conferences with individuals outside the class hour. The first step, of course, was to study the temperament of the pupil and induce him to express his tastes freely. The next, to suggest themes interesting to him and from the writing of which he would be sure to derive personal benefit. Perhaps this can be made more plain by giving a few examples.

Louise, an excellent student, somewhat surprised me by saying that really her chief delight in life was to read novels and that she was not strongly interested in any other pursuit. She was delighted with the suggestion that she discuss "The Benefits and Evils of Novel-reading." After doing some serious thinking on the subject for several months, she said she had learned to understand fully the need and value of discrimination in choice of reading matter.

George, who intended to be a mechanical engineer, took much pleasure in working up the topic, "How Man Has Utilized Natural Forces for Motive Power." This he treated historically.

A bright German girl, one of the best students in the class then reading "Wilhelm Tell," gladly undertook a special study of the two common German *ideals of womanhood* typified by Schiller in *Gertrude and Hedwig*.

Ellen admitted mournfully that her essay would be a terrible task because she had never become warmly interested in anything but games. The mention of "Rational Amusements" cheered her wonderfully. Later she showed very considerable thought power by writing in class a good, logical outline that finally was developed into a decidedly readable essay.

Will had shown such interest in the elementary treatment of molecular and molar forces in the study of physics that a little hint concerning the possibility of showing the potency of attraction by illustrations from history, literature and life as well as from science, made him enthusiastically choose for his theme "The Power of Attraction."

In similar manner, most of the others were led to select subjects along the line of their strongest interest which I learned partly by noticing carefully during the fall term what seemed particularly to appeal to them in the classroom and partly through frequent personal conversations. One case though seemed almost hopeless. Try as I would, I could get no expression of interest or even preference for anything under the sun out of Beulah. There seemed to be nothing she really liked or disliked. Neither had she any plan for the future. She knew that she must earn her living and she "guessed" about the only thing she could do would be to go into the hotel as waitress. Other girls with no particular gift had done that. Of course she wouldn't enjoy it but that was all she could see open to her. "Well, Beulah," I said, "I've been trying for a month to find out in what you are interested so as to help you choose a subject for your essay. If it

really is true that you don't care for anything, I don't see how you are ever going to choose an occupation. It would be a serious thing for you to go into the hotel dining-room simply because you didn't know what you wanted to do." That time I struck a spark from the stone. With more energy than I had deemed her capable of, the girl returned, "That's just what's worrying me all the time. I don't mind about the essay. I could probably work up some theme from history or literature, it doesn't matter much what. You see I don't know any girls here who do earn their living except by clerking or hotel work and they're both horrid to think of doing."

"By reading during the next few months on the kinds of work women have done successfully and by carefully studying the advantages and disadvantages of each, you might be able to write a paper on "Occupations Desirable for Girls," I ventured tentatively. The disconsolate face brightened instantly. "Oh, I would *like* to do that," she said eagerly, "because it would help me to know what chances there are in the world and perhaps by the time I'm through school I'd *know* what I really want to do. I haven't an idea now and that would be the sure way to find one. I'm so glad you suggested it." Any teacher will understand that I no longer regretted the time that had apparently been wasted in vainly trying to understand this dull girl.

Beginning early in, January, the Monday recitation period was set aside for the class to work on their outlines while I moved around among them, giving each the help he desired in the

matter of logically arranging topics and sub-topics and by question or criticism indicating where outlines seemed incomplete or ill-balanced. The pupils worked with a will, for they soon realized that the writing of the theme would not be very difficult if the outline were made so complete in detail that only illustrations of the points they wished to make were left to be selected and embodied. They were encouraged to watch for these illustrations in what they saw, heard, and experienced from day to day at school, at home, on the street or in their reading. Hardly a day passed but some one would come to me at an odd moment to tell me and ask my opinion of an incident reported in the newspaper, a fact observed or an incident read "that just seems to fit into my essay." The outline seemed to form a sort of constant undercurrent in their thoughts. Never have I seen a class work harder or more cheerfully. Their subjects had a chance to grow upon them because they lived as companions so long.

During the month of February my Saturdays were devoted to helping the Seniors towards freedom in expressing their thoughts by letting each come for an hour to my sitting-room to talk over his outline with me. You see, I believed thoroughly that Miss D. was right in saying "Oral composition ought to precede that done in writing."

Let no one suppose that during these private interviews I pumped into the children what I wanted them to write. On the contrary, I used all my ingenuity in pumping out of them by sympathetic questioning all the thought they had on their theme. They ex-

## SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

me carefully what they had concerning each point of the and what examples or illustrations intended using. As is often older people, they found that writing freely their ideas were clarified. Furthermore, my interest in their and my occasional words of or doubt seemed to loosen their. Several said, "Oh, I can talk off to you just as I think it, but I write it as an essay should be ten." In most cases they were made realize that writing is only talking with a pen. The slower ones I had turn back and tell it all a second time, making copious notes from their own talk upon the outline itself and occasionally writing out entire sentences in which they had expressed themselves particularly well.

What of results? Were the essays exceptionally good? The Superintendent said they were *pretty good* but he certainly had heard more brilliant sounding productions at several other commencements, though those might perhaps not have been original. Still he thought it looked well for the school to make a fine intellectual show at graduation. For instance, he could think of many illustrations from Greek and Roman history or quotations from famous orators that might have been used in several of the essays with telling effect in place of those simple examples from every day life. Yes, of course, the pupils had very likely more good out of using their own observations, but more literary fireworks would have given a better chance for elocutionary effects in delivery.

the audience thought differently that it

was a pleasant change for once to near a set of young people talk naturally about things of which they knew something. Repeatedly I heard the expression, "That sounded just like Lena (or Beulah or Bessie), anyone could tell by the way she gave it that she'd written it herself." One man asked me, "Did Ellen write that essay about recreations or did some one give her the ideas to put into her own words?" Upon my asserting that I knew it to be the girl's own thought as well as expression, he said, "I'm very glad to hear it. I didn't know she had so much sense. I sometimes think if young folks could be got to say and write the best that's in them, people would often get a higher opinion of them." That one remark outweighed all the Superintendent had said.

That the class felt the joy of work well done was evidenced by the statement of one of them, "One thing's sure. We didn't have to feel ashamed when folks came up and said our essays were good. We knew they were all our own and so we could enjoy the congratulations."

Was the experiment worth all the time I devoted to it? Yes, to me. For I learned to my surprise how much reasoning power, good sense and right feeling exists deep down in many a pupil of very ordinary general ability and apparently unpromising exterior. In no single case did I fail to form a higher estimate of the character of the pupil. Besides, this experience hinted of many ways by which I might reach the real and better self of many another boy and girl.

## COMMENT.

### SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

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#### SUPERINTENDENT SOLDAN—DEAD.

Superintendent F. Louis Soldan, of St. Louis, fell to the ground dead while walking along the street, on Friday, March 27. Another has gone of those who helped in first putting into some system the chaos of efforts that was called teaching, half a century ago, in the Mississippi Valley. Mr. Soldan was associated with that coterie of students of education and philosophy that distinguished St. Louis in the latter part of the Nineteenth Century. Among these were Henry C. Brockmyer, William T. Harris, Denton J. Snider, Anna C. Brackett, Thomas Davidson, who have achieved inter-

national prominence among those who think. Mr. Soldan was among these but not closely identified with their "views of the world," and systems of thought. Indeed the entire coterie would better be styled a group of individuals than a class. The thought most common to them all was that each one must solve the problems of life for himself. No two of them have ever solved it alike. They were, however, a class in that they were all rationalists rather than empiricists. The personality of Mr. Soldan was his distinguishing characteristic. By personality is meant his volitional and emotional endowments—the will and the heart. He was neither so analytic nor constructive in his thought as the others, though an able thinker. His success as superintendent of the St. Louis schools is universally acknowledged. Those who came to know him intimately and sympathetically, became warmly attached to him.

He passed the bar without specific warning and unconsciously—an ideal passage. He devoted his life to the education of children, though never himself the head of a family. He highly enjoyed the reunion with his educational friends at the general and midwinter gatherings, and his vacant chair will cast a shadow over these assemblies for longer than is common. Taking him all in all we shall not look upon his like again.

Of the group with whom he has labored for more than a third of a century but few now remain and but very few who, like him, have continued to work in the schools. The writer cannot count a half a score. New men with other commanding ideas are rapidly taking the direction of educational thought. Pragmatism in education, in philosophy, in religion and in the state is making its entrance into the thoughts of those who control the social order. The disestablishing of what has been deemed established by something better will be the mission of those who take this new level of thought.

#### THE BRAIN AND THE PERSON—A REVIEW OF A REVIEW.

The conception of a Universe without a purpose would be barren of all inspiration to the teacher; as barren as would be a human

soul without an aim in life. Assuming that there is no purpose in the Universe, what is the source of purpose in man? The pseudo-scientist may say that "so-called" *purposive* thought and action are the product of afferent nerve stimuli: that man is an eolian harp and nothing more. As has been pointed out, the eolian harp and the violin are two machines worked by a force external to themselves. The difference between the music of the two machines is the difference between the man and the wind that play upon them. Whatever is this difference would seem to suggest the difference between a purposeful and purposeless Universe; between free-will and no will. He who denies free-will must deny will of any sort if he thinks straight. The denial of free-will in its last analysis must be the affirmation that man is simply the music of the sensori-motor cycle when played upon by its environment.

It seems to have been the design of Dr. William Hanna Thomson to show the untenableness of such a conclusion when he wrote "Brain and Personality," a little book of 320 pages, recently published by Dodd, Mead & Company. Dr. Thomson stands in the front rank of neurologists, according to the testimony of those who have long stood there themselves. What he reports of the recent discoveries of the brain's functions may be regarded as authoritative, therefore. His conclusions on the relation of personality to brain activity are unusually interesting and are supported by the facts as he has marshalled them. They appear conclusive to one who believes in a free personality. To those who do not so believe, the argument seems to appear unanswerable, if one may judge by some reviews of the book so far published.

A brief notice of the book in the March number of the *Educational Review*, by Prof. Edward L. Thorndike, of the Teachers' College, Columbia University, which is now before us, "fears," however, "that the general reader will be misled by the book. For instance, having read now with the partial exception of the hands and feet, the salient fact about the other pair organs of the body is this, that either one of the pairs can do the whole business of both if necessary, he will be in a poor position to appreciate the facts of binocular vision."

We ask ourself whether it will not be even more evident that, after reading this statement, the general reader will be misled by the reviewer before he opens the book. The reviewer must have read the book very carelessly to escape the charge of willful misrepresentation.

The author is speaking of the brain as a pair organ in which one of the lobes does all of the mental work, and shows that the other lobe can be entirely destroyed and yet the one can do all the work, just as one is "able to use one eye for all purposes after losing its mate." Every person who has lost one eye knows this to be practically true. Why this *hypercritical attitude* of the reviewer on the *author's failure to speak* of binocular vision

in that connection? The author had already spoken of the lungs and kidneys as other pairs where the work of both was done by one when the other was disabled. The general reader would not be confused by the author's use of his illustration, though he did not stop to explain the slight difference between vision with one eye and with two.

This reviewer further says: "To take another instance (*viz.*) the suggestion that a human personality could very likely get on much as now if he had only a chimpanzee's brain to work with, is a case of precisely the wild neglect of fact that debauches popular thinking."

The author of the book on pages 76, 77, 78, is speaking of the resemblance in *structure* of an animal's brain with that of man. His statement is that "the brain of a chimpanzee, as far as *structure goes*, presents us with not only every lobe, but with every convolution of the human brain. \* \* \* So far as *cerebral structure goes* man differs from the chimpanzee or orang less than these do from the other monkeys." What he is there showing is that the nature and significance of man's *words* is the cause of the immeasurable distance between man and the chimpanzee. This distance is immeasurable because only a *person* can understand the nature and significance of words, and a chimpanzee is not a person.

Now there is no suggestion in the book that the human personality could get on "much as now" if he had the chimpanzee's brain to work with. There is no evidence that the author intended to make such suggestion. Man has made a journey of many, very many thousand years from the chimpanzee. Even the general reader knows this and popular thinking is in no danger of being "debauched" by what this author says. There is more danger that such carelessness and misrepresentation may "debauch" the opinion of those who read this review.

Again, this reviewer says that "to encourage the common but naive assumption that we punish murderers primarily because they have misused their free will can hardly help to clarify popular thought; still less the argument that what most people believe must be true."

The author was here enforcing the supremacy of man's free will. He was supposing that a criminal was before a court, and should plead: "O, Judge you should not punish me a poor machine, whose efferent acts are the necessary result of my afferent impulses. Think how old, how hereditary and natural the afferent impulse was. I stole because was hungry."

The Judge answers to such pleading: "You are a man and have the power of choice. However strong and however numerous sudden the impulses of passion or the cravings of nature may be you still have within you the power to choose not to yield to those impulses, and on that account alone I am here to judge you. If you did not have that power, I could have no jurisdiction over you. You are not an animal but a man and because



you are a man and have the power of choice you are now in court for the reason that you did not act like a man, but like a hungry animal, and you shall be punished because you did act like an animal."

This illustration was made by the author to emphasize the fact that it is the conviction of all men and ever has been that they have free will.

This reviewer believes that to base punishment for crime primarily and fundamentally upon this conviction does not help to clarify popular thought! He seems to say that it will cloud the popular thought to judge men by the decrees of the common mind. "The world," he says, "was no less a sphere when people all thought it was flat!" That is, because the common mind now thinks some things to be right which were once thought to be wrong, or that to be true which was once thought to be false, therefore, the common conviction is no rule of action. At least it will not clarify public thinking to teach that man is free to obey or disobey human law for the reason that the law is in accord with the universal conviction of mankind! Why these misrepresentations by this reviewer?

The reviewer has another objection to the book in that the author has neglected the "modern studies of the finer anatomy of the central nervous system" and so does not understand "the relation of brain events to mental facts." We must needs pass that up to a higher court.

However, according to the doctrine which seems to run along under this review, there is no higher court. The old Greek sophists have again come to the front, and no Socrates has yet arisen.

It would scarcely be worth while to give so much space to so small a matter were it not indicative of a growing tendency of a certain class of pseudo-scientists who are now in the saddle. And, what is more serious, this class of scientists are coming to prevail in institutions for the education of teachers for our free schools supported by the state.

The author of this review is a professor in good standing in one of our greatest Teachers' Colleges and is the author of a popular text book on psychology which is leading the thought of many teachers in their study along this essential line of ethical culture.

The book thus misrepresented is from the pen of an eminent physician who undertakes to demonstrate that physiology, when understood, leads inevitably to the conclusion that free will is the something that was added to the evolution of this earth with the advent of man. Those who have not drunk deeply at the Pierian spring of science can find no place in their scheme of thinking the world for free-will, either in man or in the Creator of the Universe. Assuming that Dr. Thomson gives an inventory of facts accepted by all the leading investigators about the function of the brain, he has written a very inspiring and luminous book, especially interesting to the general reader for its clearness of statement and simplicity of style. The truth of his physio-

logical data has not yet been questioned. If their truth is established then this little book leads the way to the overthrow of a sort of refined materialism that is a rehabilitation of the doctrine of Spencer, viz., that Spirit, or the psyche, and matter are both forms of motion and nothing more.

It is not difficult to see that motion is a limited phase of the activity of Universal Spirit, but man does not believe that thought, love, will are modes of motion. The human ego rejects the doctrine that he is a machine run by his environment, however artfully that doctrine may be sugar coated with the suggestion that if Dr. Thomson had not "neglected the modern studies of the finer anatomy of the central nervous system, he would better understand the relation of brain events to mental facts." So far "modern studies of the finer anatomy" have only shown that this "relation" is a mechanism pure and simple in which the efferent act is the result of an afferent stimulus produced by the environment."

This criticism is directed not against Prof. Thorndike's personal belief, but against misrepresentations of the contents of a book in a way to suggest to the general reader that it has written by a charlatan. But we have no hesitancy in expressing our conviction that no man who believes that a child is devoid of free will is a fit person to train the teacher of that child.

#### NOTES ON THE WASHINGTON MEETING.

The city of Washington was thoroughly enjoyed by the superintendents, but without shirking attendance at the meetings. Superintendent Frank B. Cooper, as presiding officer, emanated that cheerful, optimistic spirit, so characteristic of the west, which gives attention to the nearest duty while grasping the largest outlook for the future. There was no straining for effects, but a strict attention to business in a most natural and hearty way. The attendance was larger than at any previous meeting but not as large as was hoped for.

The Round Table Conferences of Thursday morning were the most enjoyed of any of the discussions. Each was well conducted and discussed topics of pressing importance.

Superintendents of the larger cities, under the leadership of Ben Blewett, of St. Louis, united in a very helpful presentation of ways and means used in the different cities to supply teachers, and provide for Normal training, and subsequent training in the schools.

The officers elected for the coming year are Superintendent W. H. Elson, of Cleveland, Ohio, president; David B. Johnson, of Rich Hill, S. C., first vice-president; Dr. Ida C. Bender, of Buffalo, N. Y., second vice-president; and A. C. Nelson, of Salt Lake City, Secretary.

The resolutions adopted recognize the need of constant effort to extend the usefulness of the schools in the more complete education of the children. Superintendent F. Louis Soldan

was the chairman of this committee. The resolutions adopted include a recommendation to Congress that more liberal financial means be provided for the work of the United States Commissioner of Education. This resolution stated that:

"State legislatures and school administrators are dependent in every step they take for the improvement of the schools on the information gathered and published by the department and on the advice of its educational experts.

"The salary fixed for the office of commissioner of education should be more in keeping with the dignity and importance of the office, and should not require constant self-sacrifice on the part of eminent men that have held this position. The salary paid by the nation to its commissioner of education should not be less than that paid by the large cities to the chief educational officer."

Other resolutions placed the department on record as favoring the study of agricultural subjects in the schools of the rural districts; the granting of Federal aid to the state normal schools for the training of teachers on the subjects of agriculture, manual training, and home economics; the maintenance in all large cities of schools for the special care of backward children; the opening of special ungraded rooms in large cities for the instruction of the children of immigrants unable to speak English, and the maintenance in such cities of evening schools for the instruction of adult immigrants in the English language and the duties of citizenship.

A resolution was also adopted expressing the gratification of the department at receiving the information that the National Civic Federation, in conjunction with Alfred Mosely, has completed plans for the visits of American teachers to the schools of Great Britain and the European continent during the coming autumn.

#### ATTENDANCE AT WASHINGTON.

The membership enrollment at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence was 1221, the largest to date. Ohio sent 125 and New York 147, Mass. 96, Illinois 65, and Penn. but 62. Two states sent 50 each. These were Indiana and Maryland.

#### ANNOUNCEMENT TO ACTIVE MEMBERS N. E. A.

The Cleveland local committee has issued a booklet on Cleveland in which is a list of the leading hotels. These hotels have agreed to limit the assignment of their rooms for convention week, until April 15, to active members of the N.E.A. and their families. Select your hotel and apply for rooms before April 15. Address Wm. G. Rose, Chamber of Commerce Building, Cleveland, Ohio, for further information.

#### ORVILLE T. BRIGHT.

*Mr. Bright's appointment as district superintendent in the school system of Chicago*

has been confirmed. He takes the desk of Albert G. Lane of whom all who knew him say, "There was a man." Mr. Bright followed Mr. Lane as superintendent of the schools of Cook county seventeen years ago last December. He was left out after twelve years' service because he would not prostitute his office to the political gang who controlled the politics of the county. It amounted to that, as we remember the incident.

Everyone who knows Mr. Bright will feel that it is fitting that the mantle of Mr. Lane falls upon his shoulders.

#### TEACHERS' VISIT TO EUROPE.

The plan of the National Civic Federation to send 500 teachers to Europe to inspect schools has been received with enthusiasm by the school authorities, and the prospects are that a large number of Boards of Education will appoint representatives and provide for continuing their salaries while on the visit. New York City has been the first to act, the Board of Education having authorized leave of absence with pay to twenty teachers to be selected by the Board.

Mr. Alfred Mosely, of London, has taken charge of the appointment of committees on reception of teachers throughout England. Mr. Mosely expects to visit this country early in April to confer with the National Civic Federation as to the details of his arrangements.

The foregoing information is furnished by Roland P. Falkner, Executive Secretary, 281 Fourth avenue, New York City.

#### SUPT. J. W. ZELLER, OF FINDLAY, O.

In a free field and no favors slated in secret Superintendent J. W. Zeller received the nomination for State School Commissioner from the Ohio state republican convention March 4. He will be elected this fall, and he has the qualities that will make him a power for good in that office. Ohio will continue to advance educationally under the influence of his administration of its school affairs. Mr. Zeller won first with the people. The following was published by him as

#### MY EDUCATIONAL CREED.

I believe that our public schools are the most potent agency to enrich and perpetuate our American institutions, that they are a greater bulwark of our liberties than armies and navies.

"I believe in the real stars burning from our past skies, in the lights of the present, and in the rise of new suns in the new heavens."

I believe in the evolution of our system of schools and in wise legislation to stimulate and hasten the evolution toward higher ideals and greater efficiency.

I believe in the professional training of teachers and in a state system of normal colleges located with the view of giving all our people an equal opportunity of receiving such training at minimum cost.

ve in mandatory expert supervision in schools, rural as well as city.  
ve in the enrichment and extension of ship high schools with a curriculum ill recognize the intellectual, industrial, social needs of the rural communi-

ve in making teaching a profession protected, and justly compensated.  
ve that "education is not a burden of zation," but that civilization is a force intained by education.

ve in more school revenue from the the end that our army of faithful may receive greater remuneration me better equipped for their vocation, ater inducements may be offered to ie strongest and brainiest young men en to the profession of teaching in t our youth may have the highest and vice, and that industrial training may be established in every com-

ve that for every dollar you save in you will spend five in prosecutions, s, and in reformatories—that forma- ot only wiser but cheaper than ref-

ve that to us as teachers has been d the most sacred, the most vital entrusted to mortal man—the train- immortal minds to a destiny worthy its that our work is spiritual in char- eternal in results; that we should ourselves anew to the cultivation of aternal spirit in the profession; that and not discord should characterize roceedings, to the end that we may and utilize all the educational forces ite to improve and make our schools ient.

ve that Ohio with its marvelous means and men should lead in the arch to greater educational achieve-

ve that a people who bank on their evements have already begun to de- that the greatest assets of a state , not in its mines and fertile valleys, well educated, honest, upright, patri- nship.

#### DDOCK GOES TO PORTO RICO

tendent F. D. Haddock, who for the ears has been doing good work for ls of Champaign, Illinois, has ac- appointment as assistant in the su- of schools for Porto Rico. Mr. is especially able in systematizing of the school's organization, knowl- teachers and school officers must t pupils, or conditions, or principles available, or they are inspired and get it.

#### SPOKANE, WASH.

A. Tormey, city superintendent of Spokane, will terminate his educa-

tional work, July 1, to engage in a business career. He has served five years and was unanimously elected for the third term of three years with an increase of \$1,000 a year in salary last March. Under his administra- tion the enrollment has increased 100 per cent, being now between 14,000 and 15,000.

#### CONFERENCE OF STATE SUPERIN- TENDENTS.

Thirty-seven states and territories were rep- resented at the first conference of Chief School Officers which was called by Commis- sioner Brown and met at Washington, Feb- ruary 24. The conference was organized with the Commissioner of Education, Elmer E. Brown, as President, and Miss S. Belle Cham- berlain, of Idaho, as Secretary.

As a result of the conference, formal action was taken requesting the Commissioner of Education to prepare bulletins of general in- formation at such times as may be convenient, so that the officers of the State Department of Education of any one state and other inter- ested persons may be apprised of the progress of educational matters in each of the other states. The point was emphasized that the United States Bureau of Education may be made especially serviceable to the chief school officers by the timely dissemination of infor- mation with respect to educational legislation enacted by the several state legislatures, and by the publication of information respecting important educational movements throughout the country. A committee of five members of the conference were delegated to present to Congress a petition asking for additional ap- propriations for the Bureau of Education to enable it to render better service to the edu- cational public. The Bureau needs a number of highly trained specialists in addition to the specialists it now has, to study and report upon such subjects as industrial education, rural schools, agricultural and mechanical col- leges, higher education, construction and equipment of school buildings, the hygiene of education, the welfare of children as affecting educational efficiency, educational legislation, etc., and to enable it to make the results of such investigations available to officers in charge of educational systems and institutions. The great need of information with respect to the construction of school buildings is strongly emphasized by the awful calamity at Collin- wood, Ohio, March 4 last.

The subject of statistical records and reports was presented by Doctor Roland P. Falkner, ex-Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, and by Mr. Alexander Summers, Statis- tician of the United States Bureau of Educa- tion, and was discussed by a number of the members of the Conference. The need of greater uniformity and accuracy in the com- pilation of educational statistics and of more promptness in furnishing them to the central office was brought out forcibly. A committee of five members of the Conference, consisting of Honorable H. C. Morrison, State Superin- tendent of Public Instruction, New Hamp-

shire; Honorable J. D. Eggleston, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Virginia; Honorable Payson Smith, State Superintendent of Public Schools, Maine; Honorable M. Bates Stephens, State Superintendent of Public Education, Maryland; and Honorable J. H. Ackerman, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Oregon, were appointed to confer with the Commissioner of Education of the United States for the improvement of statistics.

Such conferences may be made of great value to the educational interests of the country. That the first conference was a success is proved by the fact that the Commissioner of Education was requested by vote of the Conference to call a meeting of the chief school officers at such times as in his judgment may seem best.

#### SUMMER SCHOOL OF HISTORY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

The University has been very fortunate in securing the services of two of the best known scholars in the country to give courses in European and English history. Professor James Harvey Robinson, of Columbia University, will give a course on the history of the intellectual class in Europe. It has been customary in most historical courses in colleges and universities to lay special stress on the acts of soldiers and statesmen and comparatively little attention has been given to the organization, activity, and influence of the intellectual leaders, or to the higher aspects of human civilization. This is a field to which Professor Robinson has given special attention, and his treatment of it is certain to be extremely suggestive and stimulating.

Professor Edward P. Cheyney, of the University of Pennsylvania, will give a course on the history of England during the period of the Reformation. Professor Cheyney has given special attention to the social and economic history of England during the period of the Reformation.

#### CLEVELAND'S HOME GARDENS.

Thousands of blooming gardens, tended by the child gardeners of the Home Gardening Association of Cleveland, will greet the visitors to the convention of the National Educational Association.

Already the children are receiving their precious packets of seed, and ambition is budding in their hearts to prepare this flowery welcome for the forty thousand guests who are expected to throng the city at this time.

The Home Gardening Association of Cleveland is an enthusiastic and flourishing organization and is making the barren spots of the big city fair nosegays of color and perfume.

This will be the second year of the training garden established to accommodate seventy-five boys who shall be recommended by their teachers. In this garden the lads will receive practical instruction with a view to directing them to such vocations as gardening, farming,

forestry and kindred pursuits. Until school is out, "after school" hours only can be devoted to this work, but during the summer it will demand most of their days. In the experimental season passed last year excellent results were obtained in interesting the boys.

## BOOK TABLE

#### MUMPER'S TEXT-BOOK IN PHYSICS.

By William N. Mumper, Ph.D., Instructor in Physics, New Jersey State Normal School, Trenton. Cloth, 8vo, 411 pages, illustrated. Price, \$1.20. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

This book is workable and sensible, written in a clear, easy style and reinforced by numerous homely illustrations. Although distinguished by its directness, simplicity, and brevity, the work is both scientific and truthful. It meets equally the needs of students who are preparing for the most exacting college entrance examinations, and also those other students who are not going to college. The attention of the pupil is directed first and chiefly to the "how" rather than to the "why" of phenomena, thus laying a firm foundation on the well-established facts and principles of the subject. Throughout emphasis is placed upon the physical relations, rather than upon the forms of expression. The plan of treatment will develop genuine knowledge and discourage the mere learning of definitions. The important subjects have been treated with the greatest care, but pains have been taken to give to each only its due proportion of space. The questions and problems at the end of each topic are more than ordinarily useful, while the cuts and diagrams have been selected entirely because of their teaching value.

THE STORY OF TWO BOYS. Retold by Clifton Johnson. Cloth. 12mo, 192 pages with illustrations. Price, 35 cents. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

Forming one of the series of Eclectic Readings, this book is suited for the third and fourth years in school. The story of Sandford and Merton, on which it is based, has long been recognized as one of the first among the classics of childhood. It is here retold in a modernized form, free from the unnecessary digressions and tedious moralizings which made the original tale too complicated and slow for modern readers. Mr. Johnson has omitted whatever seemed unnecessary to the narrative, and the result is a charming story which most children will read with unflagging interest and attention. The quaint language of the original is retained; and the lessons of courage, kindness, independence, and right living are so attractively presented that the young reader cannot help being unconsciously influenced by them. The book is attractively illustrated.

# SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

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## EDUCATIONAL SURVEY.

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**Further Notes on the Washington Meeting.** Undoubtedly the most unfortunate misconception presented in the discussion at the Washington meeting of the Department of Superintendence arose from a bungling of statistical deductions, made by several speakers. It was asserted that the records of the number of pupils enrolled in each grade of the elementary and high schools, published for the various city and town schools throughout the country, indicated directly the loss of attendance, since the enrollment in each succeeding grade is less than in preceding grades. James F. McElroy, president of the Consolidated Car Heating Company of Albany, N. Y., who represented on the program the manufacturer's interests in the advocacy of trade school education, put before the audience large diagrams showing how rapidly the children dropped out of school, according to the figures giving the number of pupils attending in each grade of the schools of Albany. On the basis of these figures he practically asserted that the schools are failures. According to his interpretation of enrollment statistics, only one-third of the children of Albany who should be in the grammar school are there. The other two-thirds seem to have become phantoms, for Mr. Mc-

Elroy did not undertake to show where their bodies were except those of a few errand boys. The trades apparently do not take the boys until they are nearly sixteen years old. Yet it was asserted that these phantom children would appear in the school if trades were taught there to children from twelve years old up, and industrial training given from the kindergarten up.

This blunder in the use of statistics is so serious and so widely accepted that some analysis of it must be made, although the statistics which would give the true records of the number of pupils dropping out of school from year to year are not available. Just as serious a blunder, although not quite so ignorantly applied, has been made lately in a publication prepared by Prof. E. L. Thorndike and put out from the United States Commissioner of Education's office, entitled "The Elimination of Pupils from School." The figures used by Mr. McElroy from Albany schools, and in this contribution made by Prof. Thorndike, from twenty-three cities and towns in various states, are those prepared by superintendents to show how many pupils are in each of the different grades at a given time. The superintendents have need of such a table of attendance in organizing the number

of rooms, the teachers, and other things pertaining to the different work required in each grade. But superintendents have not thought of this record of mere numbers in the different grades as having any bearing on the personal history of the individual pupils as they pass or do not pass from grade to grade in succeeding years. Such a record merely shows where the children attending school are in the course, and does not give the information needed to tell whether all of the children of the city are in the school or not. So far as any inference may be drawn from its figures with regard to the effect of the school on the life of the children, this must be confined to their place within the school system, and the variation in the numbers shown for each grade in this table indicates that the dreaded "lock step" is not enforced to the extent of keeping all of the children who start to school together always together and in the same grade in successive years.

Had Mr. McElroy or Prof. Thorndike compared for a moment the results found by their use of these statistics with the known facts, they would have tried again before announcing their results, as the boy in the primary grade does when he catches himself adding potatoes to apples and calling the sum apples. Albany, N. Y., for instance, enforces rigidly a compulsory attendance law requiring all children under 14 years of age to be in school. They are all in school, and yet Mr. McElroy's table of figures for the successive grades showed only about half of those entering the first grade as completing the sixth grade.

The probable fact is that all complete this grade except those who die and a small per cent of dull and imbecile children. So much for statistics, and they were the foundation of Mr. McElroy's address. A further analysis of Prof. Thorndike's work in this field is given in our comment columns for those who may be curious as to how statistics may be misinterpreted.

The most important address at the Washington meeting was that of the Commissioner of Education of New York state, Andrew S. Draper. His topic was "Desirable Uniformity and Diversity in American Education." Dr. Draper made a strong plea for a uniformity in each school, not with the work of other schools but with the characteristic life and needs of the people to be served and educated by that school. In his illustrations, he intimated that even the local prejudices were to be recognized if by so doing the influence of the real work of the school could be extended among the people it served. "We are eternally conforming and standardizing," said Mr. Draper. "What we want is not schools that are alike, but principles that are fundamental and schools that are as diverse as the conditions are. Of course, all schools must have standards, but they must be standards of sense, standards of character, standards of information, and not standards of uniform courses, or uniform methods, for all the schools of the state or of the country." In illustrating his meaning, Dr. Draper said that the teacher of a small ungraded country school "who has to reckon with the life of the family and the ou-

look of the child, may be, and often is, doing much better teaching than the girl who is bent upon conforming her process to the creed of a training school or the philosophy of the books, without such an understanding of doctrine as will enable her to know that dogma is not of much account where it fails to meet situations."

With regard to uniformity Mr. Draper asserted "every one must have an elementary education, and before everything else an elementary education must mean the power to read and write and master the simple processes of mathematics. The school must have equal respect for every manner of work. It must know that without application and endurance there is no hope, and that with them there will be some result of just as much moment as any other result which it might have gained. The work of the school must have definite aim, and its ends must be assured."

The Wednesday morning discussion of "The Nurture and Protection of the Physical Well Being of Public School Pupils," was appreciated by superintendents as perhaps the most directly helpful portion of the entire program. The paper by Luther Halsey Gulick, director of physical training for the schools of New York City, was full of practical wisdom and suggestions. Every one should read this paper when published in the proceedings and keep it for reference.

The Thursday afternoon program was given by women, the topic being "The School as an Instrument of Character Building." It was undoubtedly the most enjoyed and the

most inspiring session of the meeting. Mrs. John M. Glenn's report of a school working for the development of the social consciousness was especially wholesome and tonic in its effect. Miss Jane Brownlee's explanation of an experiment in moral training was an effective plea for a conscious organization of part of the school work toward this end. And Miss Margaret E. Schallenberger, of the San Jose California Normal School, gave a very bright, rapid-fire talk on training for right conduct, which was full of common sense and wise suggestion.

In the way of entertainment the Department has never had a more enjoyable and magnificent reception than that given by the Washington Board of Education at the Corcoran Gallery of Art.

Taken altogether the Washington meeting was most encouraging in its exhibition of the activity of educational workers for the development of more perfect manhood and womanhood. No program ever covered a wider range of related elements in the education of children. The discussions were handled almost entirely by the rank and file of the nation's school workers. No one took part with the attitude of an authority, but all were earnest seekers after truth.

G. A. B.

The President to the Superintendents. The talk of the President to the representatives of our national system of education at the White House, during the recent convention, was characteristic. The president is an enthusiast

in his regard for that education which goes in and comes out through the play of the sensori-motor cycle. He would educate children to do things, especially those in which the muscular system is involved.

Industrial education was the leading topic of discussion at the Washington meeting of the Department of Superintendence, and it was fitting that the president should specialize upon it. We could not commend too highly the sanity of his views. His career as president has been an example of marvelous success in educating the people of this nation in the right principles and practice of thinking and of doing. Indeed he is the acknowledged educator of the world in these matters. Great as have been his achievements in bringing needed things to pass as an administrator, he will go down in history as the great educator of men.

A need has arisen, during the last two generations, that our theories and processes of teaching children be improved. The original senseless method of "Backing-the-book" did not long prevail, but when the physical backing of the book went out, a more subjective form of the same process continued, and school life became estranged thereby from the other life outside the school house.

The remedy now suggested is not that there should be a more intelligent teaching of these same book-subjects, so that their relations to life shall be both known and practiced in the school but it is urged that a set of *distinctively muscular studies* be added to *the curriculum*.

The present curriculum is, practically, English, Mathematics, and History—three disciplines for the development and ordering of the feelings, the intellect, and the will—which trinity of powers constitute the child. Music and drawing have been added for their "practical" value, and now manual training, leading to trades for the boys and domestic science for the girls and to agriculture for the farmers, and physical culture for all. These are to go into the course for their practical value in "making a living." The plea made by peasant and president is supported by the supposed need of teaching the dignity of "labor"—labor as muscular work.

Now it is not doubted that all these things can be used, and most of them will be used by the wise teacher, as methods of developing and ordering the Heart, the Hand, and the Head—feeling, will, and intellect—but the supreme emphasis that is being placed upon these muscular activities tends to side-track the *education* of the child for the training of his sensori-motor nervous system.

Those who believe that the sensori-motor system is the whole child, some of "our scientific education psychologists" virtually affirm, we approve of this side-tracking of the child. They would declare that what is side-tracked is a "psychologic dream."

But no one really believes that the sensori-motor cycle is all of himself, nor anything more than the instrument he uses for his own ends.

We make no suggestion that the public is in any danger from these



dreams of pseudo-scientists. But there is danger that the needed improvement in the teaching of the child will be delayed by an over-emphasis on physical education; which would make our last state worse than the present.

The teachers upon whom the public must rely for the education of their children are themselves beginning to cure the evil of backing-the-book by a wiser teaching of the matter of the book. There is much yet to be done, to be sure, but this the teachers will eventually do if they are encouraged by those in authority. If manual training is to be taught to a finish—as it ought to be—let it be in separate schools. So, too, of domestic science, and all other mechanical specialties. It is *the child* whom it is essential that the common school shall teach by the use of all the instruments that can be used to advantage in developing his trinity of powers which have been symbolized as Heart, Hand, and Head. And this, too, is the order of their relative importance and potency in human life; which order indicates the relative emphasis that should be given to the development of these powers.

**The Place of Meeting for the Department of Superintendence.**

The indifference of our educational conventions to some important matters of business is sometimes the cause of

considerable waste of energy. A case in point is the selection of Oklahoma City for the next meeting of the Department of Superintendence. There were four candidates for the honor, and Oklahoma received only a plurality vote of hardly more than a quorum of members. This was considered as settling the matter. Those who are the more responsible for the management of the Departments' interests are now seeking a vote by mail on the question. It seems that Oklahoma was chosen by unanimous vote after the first vote was taken, but not more than 250 of the 800 present at the convention voted on the question. But Oklahoma has a legal right to the convention provided adequate accommodations can be furnished.

There is some reason for alternating between the east and the west, and Chicago and Washington City would seem to accommodate all the members most equitably. Certainly the expense of attending should be made as near equal as possible between those east and those west of the Allegheny mountains.

This convention ought to be more productive of results than all the other educational meetings in the country. Its opportunities for valuable work would be greater if it had not more than two places for assembling.

## THE FOUNDATION OF ENGLISH.

*(Continued from March Number.)*

BY B. C. GREGORY, CHELSEA, MASS.

[NOTE: The classification of errors referred to as "Exhibit A" and "Exhibit B" will be found in the March number of *School and Home Education*, and "Exhibit D" in the April number. The entire discussion by Supt. Gregory has been put in pamphlet form and may be had by sending 15 cents to the Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.]

But what shall be said of the errors which were not made at all, or were made so seldom that their use did not reach one-half per cent? In Exhibit A these errors are indicated in plain Roman type. They don't appear in Exhibit B. Look over the list. It is appalling.

But we must drop lower still. Much of the time spent in teaching grammar is given to considerations, in which error is impossible. In the foregoing discussion we have considered errors as probable, or improbable, but in all cases they were errors. In much grammar teaching, however, the considerations do not admit of the possibility of error. Prepositions govern the objective case. In Latin, or German, the government by the preposition is a serious matter, but what about the English noun? Is it possible to make any errors? This is an illustration of a large class of considerations, which take up much of our time. They relate to matters concerning which the child couldn't make an error if he tried.

I now ask attention once more to Exhibit B, in which an important consideration is indicated. Look at each group and compare the column headed fourth grade with the column headed eighth grade and notice the figures. These figures indicate the number of errors per hundred pupils in each grade. In Group A, considering the excessive use of connectives, we have sixty-six errors per hundred pupils in the fourth, against ten in the eighth. Here is a large reduction, but does it not seem that this error should have been extinguished by the end of the sixth grade? Isn't it a comparatively simple error? In the other groups the showing is worse (the sub-group of antecedents, for example). In Exhibit C I have brought together the errors

## EXHIBIT C.

## A SUMMARY OF ERRORS TO SHOW THE PROGRESS OF THE GRADES.

I. Consideration of six of the seven essential errors. (43 omitted. See paper.)

	Grade	4	5	6	7	8
No. of errors per 100 pupils, .....		253	215	202	126	71
Same reduced to a basis of 100 as a grand total, ....		29	25	23	15	8

II. Consideration of all errors except 43 and 44.

	Grade	4	5	6	7	8
No. of errors per 100 pupils, .....		312	292	277	177	101
Same reduced to basis of 100 as grand total, .....		27	25	24	15	9

under the headings that I have classed as essential, excluding the errors under the heading of superfluous words, Group B. I exclude this group because, as I have stated, the error is not one of grammar, although a prolific source of grammatical error; and to ascertain the degree of success attained in extinguishing grammatical error it is necessary to consider the errors by themselves. Taken from this point of view, the figures per hundred pupils are as follows (see Exhibit C, I): Fourth grade, 253; fifth, 215; sixth, 202; seventh, 126; eighth, 71. Bringing these to the basis of 100, the following figures result: 29, 25, 23, 15, 8. There is seen, therefore, a steady reduction in error from beginning to end, but it does not seem like a very great triumph, when in the eighth grade, considering errors in fundamental considerations only, there are still nearly one-third as many as there were in the fourth grade. Surely in these simple considerations we should have reached extermination. Why haven't we reached extermination? Because, I reiterate, we have spread our effort over too wide an area. We have not concentrated.

But suppose we take all the errors of Exhibit B, little and big, leaving out again the superfluous words (see Exhibit C, II), then, on the basis of 100, the relations would be 27, 25, 24, 15, 9. It will be seen here comparing the fourth grade with the eighth that we have made a reduction of just two-thirds, not so much, indeed, as when only essential errors were considered. It is apparent, therefore, in attempting to do so much, we have not succeeded in the essentials, and we have succeeded even more poorly in the non-essentials.

But the principal fact that I deduce from these last figures is this: I refer to I in Exhibit C. If we can get from twenty-nine in the fourth grade down to fifteen and eight in the seventh and eighth grades, why could we not by concentrating on the essential errors entirely exterminate them so as to leave, in the seventh and eighth grades at least, zeros, so far as these essentials are concerned? I believe it could be done. If it could, behold a twofold outcome; first, the seventh and eighth grades are left clear for the teaching of grammar as a science, and second, we have obtained a

trained habit of accuracy in expression and a student-like attitude toward grammar. To this may be added a third, which is probable, namely, a more kindly state of mind. That is to say, the student has not yet learned to hate grammar, and if it is properly manipulated in the seventh and eighth grades, I see no reason why he should hate it there. To tell the truth, I am a little doubtful about the seventh grade. I should favor taking up the subject in the seventh, if at all, in a very extensive way, leaving the more intensive treatment to the eighth grade, how intensive we have no means of knowing. You see this is a plea rather for the study of grammar than the neglect of it. I think the High School teachers have a right to demand this preparation, but they will never get it so long as we muddle the subject as we do.

I have just hinted that I am doubtful concerning the formal study of grammar before the child reaches the eighth grade, and I have hinted at the beginning of this paper that this study may throw a little light on the time for beginning such formal consideration of the subject. Here are the figures which seem to bear on the subject. Notice, first a peculiarity in Exhibit C. In I the number of errors per hundred pupils drops from 253 to 126 in passing from the fourth to the seventh grade, a drop of one-half; when we pass from the seventh to the eighth grade, we drop from 176 to 71, again about one-half (44 per cent.). In II, where all the errors of Exhibit B are considered, the drop from the fourth to the seventh is 43 per cent., and from the seventh to the eighth, 43 per cent. You see that even under present conditions, we make in one year, from the seventh to the eighth, the same progress as in the three preceding years taken together. This condition of things may have two explanations, either the teacher is teaching more grammar in the eighth grade or the mind has become ready for it. I do not ascribe this phenomenon to the former cause, at least to any great extent, for these reasons: first, my test was taken in January, when the eighth grade was not half gone; second, the teachers had been teaching more or less grammar right along in the other grades; third, it is contrary to experience that what a child learns in his grammar lessons should appear in his composition. I am disposed, therefore, to look on these figures as indicating the eighth grade as the proper time for beginning the study for formal grammar.

The figures do not prove this proposition, but they give it a strong probability.

Indeed, is not a suspicion forced on the mind, from a general consideration of the figures of Exhibit C, that our present methods in grammar take little account of the fact of the child's mental development? Even with the present methods ought we not to accomplish more than we do? We have skillful teaching and our teachers work hard enough. I suspect that if these figures which I am offering could speak, they would say, "You are taking up the consideration of difficult matters before the mind is prepared for them; you therefore fail and must fail." But it does not seem to be a bold assumption that the simple considerations which the results of this study indicate as essential are probably not in advance of the condition of a child at the time he must be taught. I suspect that in limiting ourselves to such considerations we would be obeying the indications of nature at the same time that we were wiping out the 80 per cent. of error.

What about the language books that are issued in such great number? I don't know. I suggest to the teacher to take a blue pencil and open one of those language books, and, in view of what I have offered, see how much she can do with that blue pencil. Yet I believe in a language book, and I have, for years before I made this investigation, had it in my mind to try to write a language book on the basis of such an investigation as this. Now that I have made the investigation I feel more like it than ever, but I suppose I shall never have time to do it. I hope someone else will.

It may be urged that all the findings of this paper would be altered in getting results from schools in which there is a large foreign element. I have had some experience with a large foreign population since I made this investigation, and I have found out that their errors are all their own. Nevertheless, I believe there comes a time, even in the case of a foreign child, when the considerations to which I allude will apply. Besides, I am discussing English as a vernacular, and not as a foreign language.

I have spoken of seven considerations. That is a small number, but it will prove to be a very large number if the teacher tries to teach them all at once. I reiterate in closing, the word which I have used many times in this study, and which should be the slogan for all teachers of grammar, and, indeed, of everything else, "Concentrate." Correcting

everything is pedagogically wrong. It distributes the child's attention over many points, and gives close attention to nothing. It is far better pedagogy to concentrate attention on one error until that is disposed of, conveniently ignoring all others. Bear in mind that mental processes can become reflex just like physical processes.

May I paraphrase an ancient saying, and say that the grammar was made for the child, and not the child for the grammar? If it wasn't, it ought to be.

#### WHY NEED ENGLISH COMPOSITION BE A BUGBEAR?

BY MARGARET H. J. LAMPE.

#### IV.

##### DEVELOPING A MOTIVE FOR WRITING.

All of us have heard more or less frequently that the function of the teacher is to bring the child and the thing to be taught into vital connection and make them one. Lately a good deal has been said to the effect that the instructor's chief duty is to create in pupils an interest in the subject studied and the advocates of soft pedagogy urge that the child's pleasure be the teacher's guide. It seems to me that while the first general assertion is true, each of the following detailed statements contains a dangerous half truth. It must never be forgotten that interest and pleasure in school work are means but should never be thought of as ends in themselves. In the case of older pupils at least, these are readily awakened, though kept morally subordinate by leading young people to understand clearly, and mentally to acquiesce in the purpose of the work required by them. This purpose need not always be the sole or even the chief one the teacher has in mind.

As one result of careful observation, during the past fifteen years, of more than a thousand boys and girls from thirteen to twenty years of age, I have become convinced that *a complete recognition of an essential good to be attained through a given piece of work is all that is needed to make any pupil bend his energies earnestly towards its accomplishment.* A prerequisite for successful teaching then is the ability on the part of the teacher not only to see but to induce the children to see the "vital connection between the subject and themselves." A statement by the teacher of the value of a particular study may prove helpful but is usually insufficient unless he is so thoroughly acquainted with the mental attitude of children generally and his own pupils in particular, that he can put his statement in such a way that it will be entirely convincing to them.

The first thing we must do then is to find out what to boys and girls seems "good." Now what do they deem a legitimate purpose in any

school exercise? The following answer is not mine. It is a condensed summary of statements made by many pupils on various occasions. The child thinks any school exercise really essential and actually valuable to him only if it fulfills one of three requirements: viz., that it opens the way to activity (not thought) that is personally practical (or, as he would say, useful in every day life), altruistic, or pleasurable. To put it in another way, if a study gives to him individually a vigorous affirmative to one of the following question, "Will it help me to do what I want to do or think I need to do in my future life?" "Will it give me a chance to help others or to draw them to me?" "Will it mean pleasure for me now?" Then he will cheerfully bend his energies towards its accomplishment, as the instances cited in this and the following article will show.

The class assigned to me in English had hardly seated themselves on the second day of school when Cora raised her hand. "Are we going to have to write compositions this year?" she asked anxiously. "Why?" "Oh, you didn't say anything about it yesterday in telling us the plan of work and so we were all hoping we wouldn't have anything of the sort." "Why did you hope that?" "Because it means such a dreadful lot of hard work without any good to pay you for doing it." About this time I was getting interested. "How many of you feel the same way about this?" The response left no shadow of doubt that all had a violent prejudice against composition. "What have you ever

done in this line?" they were asked. "Why, nothing at all. This will be our first year in English. We did try to write a few little things in Eighth Grade and that was horrid but we know this will be ever so much worse because all the high school pupils in all the classes just hate to write essays." "Why do they hate writing?" "Partly because its hard but mostly because there isn't any sense in it." "Oh, isn't there? Why do you suppose it is required in every high school course then?" For a few moments this seemed to be a poser. Then a bright pupil volunteered, "I guess it must be because students have to write themes in college and our school wouldn't stay on the accredited list if they didn't have in whatever the college Profs. require." This remark seemed to relieve and satisfy the minds of all. After a pause, Cora said with a deep sigh, "*That must be it.* But don't you think it's hard that all of us should have to do it just for that? Think of the work it means. Don't you teachers have any right to do what the classes need? We're not going to college so it's no good to us." "She's right there, Miss L.," put in Harry emphatically, "there isn't one pupil in this class that's likely to go to college. Most of us will be lucky if we get to stay in school long enough to finish high school. Couldn't you let us read more in the time we'd otherwise waste in writing essays?" "It would do us more good," urged Claude, "because that would help us to understand books better. We'll all want to read, more or less of course, all our lives but there isn't one chance

in a thousand that any one of us will ever have to write an essay after we leave school and for us to spend hours and hours for four years on what we'll never have any use for is a dead waste of time. Don't you really think so yourself now?" "Yes, if what you say is true, but are you sure it is?" Harry here spoke up again, "I believe she is right. It's sure none of us boys here will ever dream of writing an essay or anything else for any purpose. Two or three of the girls at most might some day belong to one of these here tony literary clubs and have to write a paper but most of them have too much sense to go in for that sort of thing." "Yes," said Eva, "and if we ever do we can do like the women do who are in those clubs now—get a lot of reference books and histories and copy here and there out of them what they can find on the topic they have to write up. I've watched several of them work at the library. We don't need to study composition for that."

"How many of you expect to work problems in Algebra after you leave school?" "I see what you're driving at," said Harry, "but all the same, Algebra does us lots of good even if it is hard. It trains a fellow to think straight." "And it helps you to understand Arithmetic better and Arithmetic is useful," added May. "Well," said Adah thoughtfully, "when you think of it, we do learn plenty of things in school that we don't study for their own sake. For instance, we don't ever expect to speak Latin or even read it after we leave school. I suppose there must be some good in composition or it wouldn't be in the

course. Maybe it helps us understand good authors better. But it doesn't seem reasonable that writing would help you to read. I spose we'll have to do it as it's required, but *it wouldn't seem such an awful burden if we could see the good of it.*" There was a general assent to this and the dispirited attitude of the class prompted the remark, "Don't cross the bridge until you come to it. I shall probably not ask you to write an essay for two or three months and by that time you may have learned to understand the value of such work and be ready to do it cheerfully. But now I can think of something that every one of you will want to write many a time and often after you leave school. Can't you think what it is?" "We might have to keep books or some sort of records," said Claude, "but that wouldn't be all of us and I'd hardly call that writing, though it is in one sense." "You don't mean examinations?" asked Maude doubtfully. "I know," said May eagerly, "she means letters, and that's so too." And, Oh, how I do hate to write letters," added Cora, "I never know what to say and I keep putting it off and putting it off till I'm ashamed to let it go longer." "So do I," came from several. "All the same you like to receive letters fast enough. Everybody does. So do as you'd be done by, girls," said Harry mockingly. "Yes, I know," returned Cora seriously, "but really I can't see how any one could care to get letters from me. I've often thought they're not worth the postage. I guess I don't know how to make them interesting." "There's an awful lot of difference in letters," said Ethel. "Maybe you'll



get two letters from friends that live close together so that they see and hear just about the same things and one letter will be bright and entertaining and the other as dull and stupid as can be. I've often wished I could write like Marie S." "I guess we've all wished that," said Eva. "Did you ever try to find out what makes her letter so entertaining?" To this there were various replies that prompted the question, "Do you think it worth while for you to learn how to write letters, well?" The eagerness with which the class took up my suggestion was an amazing contrast to their former attitude towards all work in composition.

"We'll begin at once then by making a list of all the kinds of letters you think you may have occasion to write during your future lives. Cora may write the names on the board as the rest of you suggest them." This was done. Then each pupil was asked as part of the next day's lesson to classify the list in writing, according to his own ideas, and make further additions as might seem necessary to complete the outline in detail.

When results were compared on the morrow it was found that most of the pupils had read in their own, or in some other Rhetoric all that could be found on the subject of letter writing. Had that been assigned as a lesson it would have been unduly long. Would the chapter have been read with the same desire for information?

The class having decided that while less interesting, it would be advisable to work on business letters first because they would be shorter and easier.

these were taken up and their essentials discussed with animation. Then the class were asked to try writing the first kind of business letter they would probably have occasion to pen immediately after leaving school; viz., an application for a position of some sort. These were read aloud in class by me without the signatures and pupils were asked to put themselves in the place of the employer and give their judgment of the applicant as he appeared behind or rather through his letter. This was surprisingly well done. The teacher also made criticisms and comments. After a day or two letters of recommendation were similarly handled. These were followed by business letters of other kinds. Next we took up social notes, both formal and informal, and lastly letters of friendship.

One rather amusing and pedagogically significant incident occurred. On the third day as I was holding up for inspection several letters (?) in which the "body" was represented by a few horizontal lines, Millie suddenly remarked, "Why, we had all about letter writing in the seventh grade. That's the way we did it there. We were taught the form of superscription, heading, address and conclusion." "Yes," said Edna, "we wrote maybe six or eight of those apiece, leaving the body blank. Then we thought we'd learned all there was to know about letter-writing. We finished the subject and were examined on it, but we never wrote a single letter, only just the skeletons, and I see by the red ink you have on those that we didn't even remember that much." "We never

thought until we talked it over here that the main part of a letter was of any consequence. The form was all we were asked to pay attention to and they didn't drill us enough on that to make us remember much of it," said May. The truth of the latter statement was self-evident, for not more than one in a class of twenty-three members had used forms at all correct or even permissible.

Of course we all know that teachers have no time to teach letter-writing as an art, but is there one more useful? What form of composition is more important to eight out of ten people? Where does lack of culture become more hopelessly conspicuous than in an awkward social note or an egotistic ill-worded letter? How many people lose business chances and even friends because they have no definite ideas of what various kinds of letters should and should not contain? Think you all the Paris gowns, real laces and jewels possessed by a certain senator's wife could blind me to the fact proved by an ill-scrawled invitation worded thus: "Mrs. Alpheus Politicus requests the pleasure of Miss Lampe's company to lunch in honor of Miss Goldrox on Wednesday, at 1 p. m., and you will please come prepared with some funny story or conundrum or etc., not too long to help me entertain my guests." The writer had been a teacher but was said to have risen

to her proud eminence by reason of her literary culture.

Lest this article become too long I will merely add that the writing of letters of friendship was preceded by the reading and criticising of many such letters (without their signatures of course) in class, and some little study of personality as displayed therein. Pupils were encouraged to economize their time by doing their own actual correspondence with friends at a distance in class. This not only added interest to the work but gave them a real understanding of the fact that courtesy demands of us that we not only write to our friends but *answer their letters* and relate what will interest them rather than indulge in a mere outpouring of our own interests and views.

Any teacher who has not tried such work will be amazed at the latent good taste and good feeling that may be developed in a class of children in a very short time. The group of young people referred to above found a little book entitled, "Studies for Letters" by Miss F. B. Callaway, exceedingly helpful as well as interesting to them.

In closing it may be well to quote the motto of the above mentioned book, a statement by a man who had much influence upon English schools, Sir Rowland Hill. He wrote, "Letter-writing should form a distinguished part of the great work of national education."



*Photo by S. Calvin.* LIME STONE QUARRY AT CEDAR VALLEY, IOWA.  
Note the smoke from the engine at the bottom of the deep pit in the center of the quarry. What can you say of the regularity of the rock layers and the method of handling the blocks of stone?

### THE UPPER MISSISSIPPI REGION.\* ITS RESOURCES AND ITS PRODUCTS.

F. M. FULTZ, BURLINGTON, IOWA.

#### FORESTS.

The forests of the Upper Mississippi Region deserve more extensive mention than there is space here to give them.

For the first five hundred miles above St. Louis, the flood plain of the Mississippi and the lower courses of its tributaries are quite generally covered with timber. The common trees are the elm, ash, sycamore, soft maple, cottonwood, box-elder, birch, island

hickory, hackberry, bitternut (pignut), willow, and to some extent the black walnut, butternut, honey locust, hard maple and linn. The pecan also flourishes for some two hundred miles north of St. Louis.

Along the higher creek valleys, running up the hillsides, and frequently extending a considerable distance out on to the uplands, grow the white oak, red oak, bur oak, and several other less common species of oak,

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elm, hard maple, pignut, linn, honey locust, black walnut, butternut and other specimens of less note.

While there is not space to speak of each of these trees in detail, yet many of them are of such importance that some brief remarks at least should be devoted to them.

The nut trees are the hickories, pecan, black walnut, and butternut. The nuts from these trees have considerable commercial value. The hickory nut probably ranks next after the English walnut of all the nuts produced in our country. Although this place might be disputed by the pecan, which is raised in large quantities further south. After the hickory nut and pecan, the black walnut ranks next in value as an article of commerce. However, the nuts from all these trees are found in the market.

The lumber from the different trees is used in the manufacture of various articles, some being especially well adapted to one kind of use, while others are best fitted for some other particular purpose. Oak, maple, and birch are used for fine furniture and for interior finishing in houses. Formerly black walnut and butternut were much used for interior finishing, and the black walnut also for furniture. But the black walnut is now so scarce that most of it is bought up for the manufacture of gun stocks, it being the best wood found anywhere in the world for that purpose.

Soft maple, elm and ash are much used in the manufacture of cheap furniture. They are now also furnishing much of the material for basket making, which industry is being developed

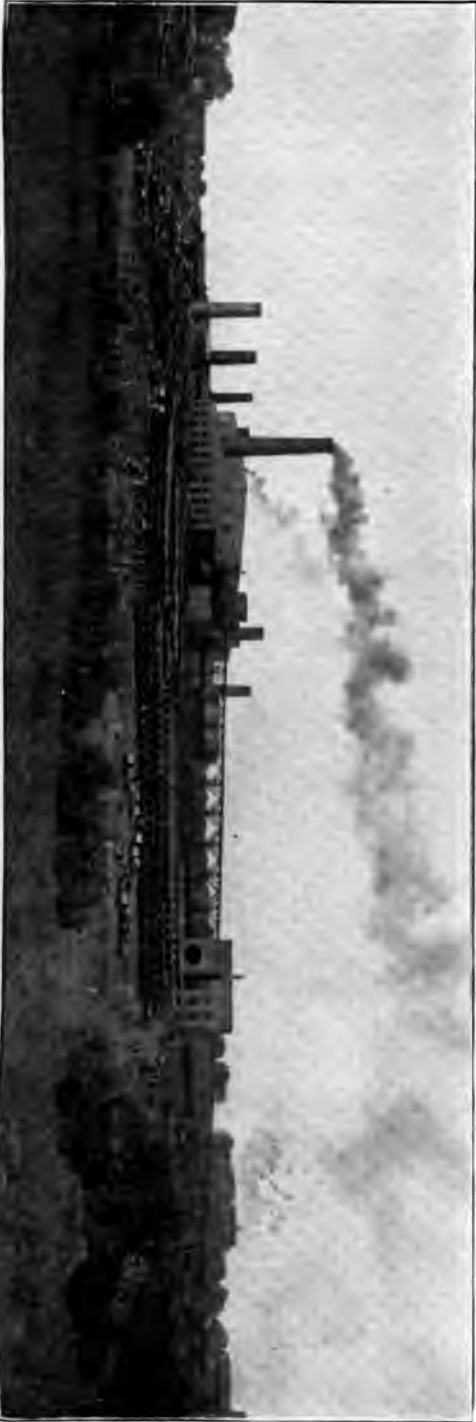
at various points in the region. The willow is also used in basket making.

The early settlers took up their homesteads in the timber and along the streams. There were various reasons for this, one being that many came from the states further east where the best land occupied a similar position. Then, too, the timber furnished them material for building and fuel. Game was more plentiful and an important item to people making a home in a new region. Many settled along the creeks where there was water power, and built saw-mills to supply the needs of the immediate neighborhood in lumber. Many of the first buildings, though frequently built of logs, were finished with lumber from the local forests.

Covering the northern part of Wisconsin, and a considerable portion of Minnesota, are the pineries, which for many years have supplied the whole Upper Mississippi Region with lumber, beside furnishing much for the country south and west. The most valuable tree in these forests is the white pine. In the early years of lumbering it was practically the only tree cut; but it was found so valuable for many purposes that the big supply demanded has practically exhausted the forests. White pine is especially valuable for pattern making, and no other wood which is easily and cheaply obtained has been found to take its place for this purpose.

So great has been the drain of lumber from the northern forests, that nearly all of the region has now been cut over. What there is left is mostly "Norway pine" and tamarack, both

Photo from *Monmouth Milling and Milling Co.* THE FACTORY OF THE MONMOUTH MANUFACTURING CO.



HAULING LOGS IN THE PINERIES OF MINNESOTA. The engine is partly on runners.



greatly inferior to the white pine. It will be but a very few years until this supply, too, will be exhausted.

The lumber industry has been a great business and has employed thousands of men in the different parts of the work. The trees are largely cut and hauled to the streams during the winter months, when the ground is deeply covered with snow. When the spring floods come, the logs are floated down the creeks into the larger streams and to the saw-mills, which are located at convenient points along the river; or collected into booms somewhere on the lower courses of the tributaries of the Mississippi and made into rafts, which are then towed by steamers to the mills located farther down the Mississippi, some of which are as far south as Quincy, Ill., and Hannibal, Mo.

#### BUILDING STONES AND MINERALS.

Limestone is widely distributed over the area, but in many places, as through the north-central portion of Iowa, it is so deeply covered with drift, that it is cheaper to ship stone from a distance than to open up quarries. Also in the coal region it is covered by many hundreds of feet of sandstones. There are many noted quarries of limestone, those of Joliet, Ill., and of Anamosa, Cedar Valley and Stone City, Ia., being the best known. From these quarries large quantities of fine building stone are shipped to points in the adjacent territory. The rocks from these quarries is especially well adapted for bridge piers and abutments.

At many places the limestone is of

a quality well adapted for making lime. There are well known lime kilns at Quincy and Port Bryon, Ill., Hannibal, Mo., and at Lime City, La. Thousands of barrels of lime are annually shipped from these places.

In many localities in Wisconsin and Minnesota sandstone furnishes good building material. Also in these states there are well known granite quarries from which much stone is shipped for building and monumental purposes. The quarries at Montello and Wausau, Wis., and at St. Cloud, Minn., furnish especially good grades of granite.

There is an extensive deposit of gypsum near Ft. Dodge, Ia., and large quarries are worked there. The gypsum is used in making plaster of paris and a material known as "stucco," large quantities of which were used in constructing the great buildings at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis in 1903-1904.

Lead is mined in limited quantities at Galena, Ill., and Dubuque, Ia. These mines have been worked for about a century, and in the earlier years of their existence formed an important source of supply; but since the development of the great lead mines in Missouri and in Idaho and Montana, the quantity of lead produced at the Galena and Dubuque mines is comparatively small.

In Minnesota there are some of the most extensive deposits of iron ore in the world, and nowhere else is it found where it is so easily mined. The ore occurs in beds of many square miles in extent, and sometimes hundreds of feet in depth, and is so loose



*Photo from the Minneapolis Threshing Machine Co. THRESHING WHEAT IN MINNESOTA.*  
Note the wheat in sacks ready for the market; the wagons with racks for hauling the bound grain to the thresher; and the engine which runs the thresher.





*Photograph by F. M. Fultz.* **KILNS OF THE GRANITE BRICK CO., BURLINGTON, IA.** *All rights reserved.*

Hard paving bricks are burned in these kilns. In the background at the right is the factory where the clay is worked and moulded.

in structure that it is scooped up with steam shovels, like so much clay or sand, and dumped on ore cars that are run down a railway built into the open mine.

The coal fields of Illinois and Iowa are very extensive, that of Illinois occupying almost two-thirds of the state, and that of Iowa about one-fourth. They are extensively worked, coal being one of the best paying industries of the region. The business is carried on at hundreds of places and it is not possible to mention all the important centers. Belleville, Ill., and Centerville, Ia., are two of them which are widely known.

#### CROPS AND LIVE STOCK.

There is less waste land in the Upper Mississippi Region than in any equal area anywhere in the United States. While the soil is adapted for many different kinds of crops, yet the great crop

is corn. Illinois and Iowa, with the adjoining states, comprise the greatest corn region in the world. In 1906 Iowa produced 273,275,000 bushels, and Illinois 347,169,000 bushels, 300,000,000 bushels is no unusual yield for either state. The value at 50c a bushel would be \$150,000,000, which is about double the value of all the gold mined in the United States, including Alaska, in one year. When it is remembered that this is the value for the corn of one state alone, and that there are several other important crops and great numbers of live stock marketed, it can be readily seen that the value of the annual products of either Iowa or Illinois reaches an enormous sum. Considerable corn is now being raised in Minnesota also. Formerly the northern edge of the corn belt was near the southern line of that state, but by the production of hardier va-



rieties, the zone is continually widening to the north.

Wheat, oats, rye and barley are all grown throughout the region, oats being very generally raised in all parts for feed as well as for the market. Minnesota is the great wheat state of the region, and many farms there contain thousands of acres, devoted exclusively to wheat raising.

The hay crop is bountiful, and the pasturage is as fine as can be found anywhere. Great numbers of hogs and beef cattle are raised for the market. Many cattle are brought from the western plains to Iowa and Illinois and fattened on corn, before being sent to Chicago and other live-stock markets. Iowa leads all the states of the Union in the number of hogs annually sold.

It is a region, too, in which there is much fine stock, especially hogs and cattle. Dairying is an important industry, and butter which is made in the dairies of Wisconsin, Iowa and Northern Illinois, takes highest rank in the market.

The agricultural colleges at Ames, Ia., and at Champaign, Ill., are noted for the advantages offered in agricultural education and for their experimental farms. At these schools boys and girls are taught the best methods in agriculture, stock-raising, dairying and household economics.

#### PACKING HOUSES AND CANNING FACTORIES.

Closely connected with the agricultural interests are the meat packing houses. The most important one of these centers located within the Upper

Mississippi Region is East St. Louis. But the region is surrounded by other great centers, such as Kansas City, Omaha and Sioux City on the west and Chicago on the east, the latter drawing a large part of its supply from Iowa, Illinois and Wisconsin. At Ottumwa, Ia., there is a very large packing house.

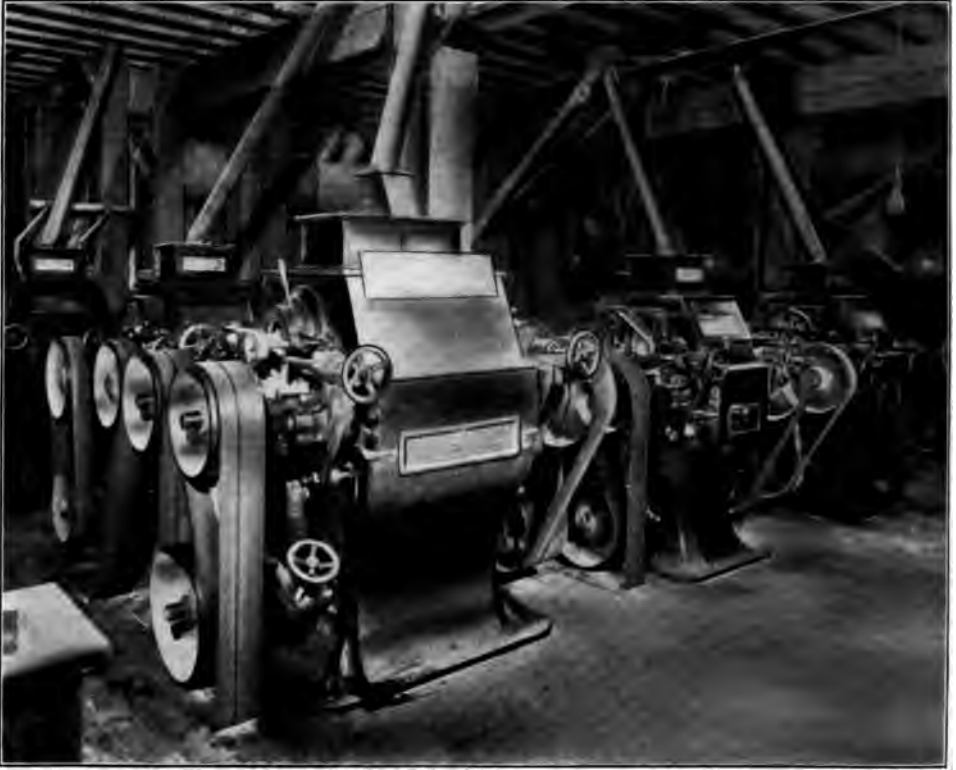
Canning factories are widely scattered over the region. At Bloomington, Ill., and Vinton and Wapello, Ia., and at many other points, large quantities of tomatoes and sweet corn are canned. On account of the rich alluvial lowlands along the Mississippi, where cucumbers, cabbage and other vegetables are raised in great abundance, there are many pickle works. Some of the largest centers are Alexandria, Mo., and Burlington and Muscatine, Ia.

#### DISTILLERIES.

The distilleries at Peoria furnish a market for millions of bushels of corn annually. So vast is the industry that railroads have been built into the city from the distant parts of Illinois and adjoining states for the express purpose of bringing in grain. One of these roads reaches into the corn fields of central and northern Iowa.

#### FRUIT.

There is a great variety of fruit. For the most part it is abundant in quantity and excellent in quality. There are usually more apples produced than find a market within the region. The orchards of central and western Iowa are famous for the beauty and flavor of the fruit.



*Photo from the Washburn-Crosby Co., Minneapolis, Minn.*

**MODERN MACHINES FOR MAKING FLOUR BY THE ROLLER PROCESS.**

Pears and plums flourish generally throughout the whole region, as do the smaller fruits, such as cherries, currants, raspberries, blackberries and strawberries. The peach crop is uncertain on account of the winter-killing of the trees and the blasting of the fruit buds in early spring.

The vineyards of the loess bluffs along the Mississippi river are almost as famous as those of the Rhine. They were planted by those who came from the "Fatherland" for that purpose. For years the grapes were mostly made into wine, but now there is such a demand for the fresh fruit that the crop is largely shipped, most of it going to more northern markets. Thousands of tons of grapes are thus annually

disposed of. Some of the finest of these vineyards are on the bluffs near the town of Nauvoo, Ill.

**MILLS AND FACTORIES.**

The manufacturing interests of the region are many and important. When the country was first settled lumber mills and flour mills were erected at almost every place where there was a convenient water power. These early mills were usually small and were built to supply the local needs. As the country gradually filled up, and the population grew denser, both the lumber trade and the flour trade became more specialized, and large mills were built where they could advantageously get a supply of logs or

grain. Thus the great lumber mills were located mostly on the Mississippi River and its northern tributaries, because nearly all of the logs used came from the pineries in the north.

The early flour mills were small and numerous, because they must be within reach of the farmer who raised the necessary grain and who had to haul the same to the mill to be ground. But in recent years many farmers do not raise any wheat at all, finding it more profitable to devote their land to the cultivation of corn and to stock-raising, buying their flour and leaving the raising of wheat to the farmers of Dakota and Minnesota. This specialization in wheat raising resulted in large flour mills being built at convenient points. These points are usually at places where there is great water power. Thus, about the Falls of St. Anthony a great flour industry grew up, and in connection therewith the city of Minneapolis. The Falls of St. Anthony afford a tremendous water power. Minnesota and North and South Dakota furnish unlimited quantities of wheat.

There are other cereal industries in the region beside that of flour. The making of oat-meal is carried on extensively at Cedar Rapids and Muscatine, Ia. There are also glucose factories which utilize large quantities of corn.

The making of farm machinery has long been one of the leading industries of the region, in the development of which different cities have specialized along different lines of implements. Thus Moline, Ill., has long been famous for its plows, cultivators and wag-



*Photo from the Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanics Art.*

**LAYING TILE FOR DRAINING LAND THAT IS TOO WET.** The tile is porous, which with loosely fitting ends of the joints, permits the water to find its way into the pipe easily.

ons. At Minneapolis, Minn., there is a large factory which turns out thrashing machines. Sandwich, Ill., is noted for its wind-mills and Plano for its harvesters. Burlington, Ia., makes large numbers of wagons which are shipped not only to the immediate region, but generally throughout the west.

The manufacture of building material of different kinds is rapidly developing. There are cement works at Hannibal, Mo., in which more than \$1,000,000 is invested. This plant makes 1,500,000 barrels of cement an-

nually. There are also extensive cement works at Mason City and Ft. Dodge, Ia. All these places are located where suitable shale and limestone abound in close proximity.

The making of paving and building brick is another important industry. Galesburg, Ill., is one of the leading centers. The kilns at this place turn out more than 100,000,000 bricks per year. There are also extensive kilns at Des Moines, Oskaloosa and Burlington, Ia. Like the cement works, the brick kilns are located where the necessary materials occur near together.

There are a number of large potteries and many tile factories. Among the largest and best known of the potteries are those at Monmouth and Macomb, Ill. At Monmouth the clay, or rather the shale used, is brought up through shafts from many feet underground. The pottery manufactured is largely of ordinary grade, although some attention is paid to the finer ware. The products of these factories are shipped all over the country.

The tile factories are numerous and scattered widely over the region. Much tile is used in draining farm lands. Being needed in large quantities, this kind of tile must be sold cheaply. As it is porous, it can be made out of surface clay, which is usually abundant, and easily and cheaply worked. The drain tile does not stand much handling, and it is fortunate that suitable clay is so generally found, thus permitting the establishing of tile kilns and yards in the immediate vicinity where there is a demand for cheap tile.

Sewer tile must be water-tight, and requires for its making the same quality of material as that used for paving brick. Like paving brick it can be shipped a long distance and handled without much danger of breakage. The factories where it is made are not so numerous. Some of the best known are at Monmouth, Ill.

Furniture is manufactured in many different places, but Rockford, Ill., probably makes more than any other city in the region. A large part of the better grade of furniture is made of oak, of which more particular mention is made elsewhere. Formerly, much of the oak lumber came from the states of the Upper Mississippi Region and adjoining states, Indiana, among others, furnishing large quantities. But the supply in these states is so nearly exhausted that Arkansas, Tennessee and other southern states are now furnishing most of it. More concerning the woods used in making furniture is given in that part of this chapter which deals with the forests of the region.

Among the special industries which have grown up within recent years, the pearl button business is deserving of notice. When it was discovered that the clam shells of the Upper Mississippi River made excellent buttons, and that they could be gathered cheaply and in large quantities, many factories immediately sprang up. In making pearl buttons, "blanks" or disks are first cut from the rough shell. A large part of this work is done at small factories scattered along the river. The "blanks" are then taken to larger factories where the fin-

ishing is done. In order to cheapen the manufacture, highly specialized machines have been invented. A single person with one of these machines can do the work which formerly required the services of four or five persons. The business was first developed at Muscatine, Ia., and that city still remains the center of the manufacture and trade.

In this brief survey it has not been

possible to speak of all the natural wealth of the region and to mention every line of industry that is worthy of note. Nor in treating of any particular industry has there been any attempt made to name all the places where it is carried on. The thought has been to give a general idea of the resources and to show how they have been made use of to man's advantage.

#### The Echo in the Heart.

It's little I can tell  
About the birds in books;  
And yet I know them well,  
By their music and their looks.  
When May comes down the lane,  
Her airy lovers throng

To welcome her with song,  
And follow in her train;  
Each minstrel weaves his part  
In that wild-flowery strain,  
And I know them all again  
By their echo in my heart.

—Henry VanDyke.

#### A BLUEGRASS VACATION.

BY JAMES SPEED.



*Photograph by the author.*

#### *Nests.*

DEAR DOUGLAS:—Jack wrote you about our plan of keeping a careful list of the nests we found while on this trip in the Bluegrass. We are

trying to find out why some kinds of birds make their nests in such a different way from others, you know.

I wrote you in one of my earlier letters from here of the nest in the

orchard that was just a lot of old dried twigs made into a floor. That was the Green Heron's nest. The fly-up-the-creek's nest we call it. You have two pictures of it, one showing four eggs in it and one showing the fuzzy youngsters just hatched. Jack and I noticed several things about that nest. It was very much like some dove's nests we discovered last year, made of heavy twigs and almost flat. We wondered why both the dove and the fly-up-the-creek should build such shallow nests. The first dove's nest we discovered last season was where two old fence rails had rotted together; the second was close up against the trunk of an old pear tree. This fly-up-the-creek's nest is among a whole mass of medium sized limbs that are crossed and recrossed until they are a perfect tangle.

In this letter we are sending you a picture of a crow's nest. It is built of much the same material as the dove's and the fly-up-the-creek's only it is deeper. It is in between some rather heavy limbs in a beech tree, as you can see.

You had better find a robin's nest—there is usually one in your backyard—so you may be able to compare it with the crow's and the fly-up-the-creek's. Jack and I are beginning to learn some reason for the way these nests are placed, and their shape. You will have to try to see each nest in your mind's eye, and—no, I'm afraid if I go on you won't have the fun of working it out for yourself.

The young crows in that nest are a cute lot. We found them only a few *days ago* and they were quite good *sized then* and they are growing very

fast. When Jack and I climb into the old beech tree and they feel the boughs bend and shake, they at once think it means dinner time and they stretch their big yellow mouths as wide as they can.

Jack has begged so hard to be allowed to write just one letter about nests, that I have agreed to let him day after tomorrow. Yours,

Toss.

DEAR DOUGLAS:—Toss wrote you the other day that I was to write this and help give you the problem in birds nests. Here goes. He wrote you a little about those crows I believe, those young ones in the big beech down in the edge of the woods. Do you know we have found a place up in a big tree nearby where we can sit and watch the old crows feed the little fellows. Yesterday when we were down there we noticed that they were growing so large they were simply crowding each other out of the nest. To-day one of them felt so big and strong that he climbed out onto a limb. Toss and I had a good laugh at him. He was so satisfied with him-



Photograph by the author.

self, that he sat there quite contented while the old crows kept feeling the ones that were still in the nest. The crows were hurrying back and forth from an open field bringing food, and so they did not miss the one who was sitting on the limb. When he grew hungry he fluttered his wings and called as loud as he could and they came and gave him his dinner. Later he slipped down the beech limb and scrambled over into a maple. He got quite close to the ground and Toss went to the house and brought Uncle out to take his picture for you. The bird was so gentle we put him on Uncle's hand and got a second photo. He did not mind it much, but the old crows did; and they flew down over our heads making the oddest jerky noise. Uncle said it was the noise crows make when they are worrying a hawk or an owl.

I began this letter by saying I would write about nests, but I got interested in telling you about the crows and almost forgot.

Down in the lower meadow field there is a swampy spot where the red-wing blackbirds have their nests among the cat-tails that grow much higher than my head. When Toss and I walk into the shallow water they fly up in huge bunches and whistle over our heads. These little birds make beautiful nests, curious ones, too, something like an oriole's nest only they don't hang free from a branch. The pictures I am sending you show how the nests are built so as to tie the stems of several cat-tails together.

Now if you are to get the answer Toss and I have to the question about



*Photograph by the author.*  
(1)

nests, you must get these pictures clear in your mind. In the photo marked (1) you are looking at the side of a nest that is woven about the stems and blades of a bunch of cat-tails. This nest was about three feet from the bottom of the cat-tails, and while we were standing there a strong wind was swinging the slender plants back and forth. In picture (2) the camera was placed to point into the snug, rather deep nest with its four blotched and marbled eggs.

Here is the question, now, and you better picture your robin's nest and other kinds you know of to help you answer it: Why are some nests loosely built and shallow and others deeper and much more carefully made? There isn't any answer in the back of your arithmetic to help you out, so put on your thinking cap, old fellow, you'll have to dig it out for yourself.

I'll take pity on you and puzzle you a little bit more. You remember the oriole's nest that hangs on the elm bough over the corner of the street a block below home? Well, that's what



Photograph by the author.  
(2)

Uncle Ed calls an extreme type (don't use that word in your answer, for you'll get it in the wrong place like as not and make nonsense). Why does a nest built where the oriole's or the red-winged blackbird's is, have to be so different in shape from the crow's nest?

I'll tell you this much, Toss and I worried and worried until we sat down one night and mapped it all out. Draw each nest, jut a rough outline of it as you look at it from the side, so as to show the place it is found in the tree or bush. When you have them all before you, you should get the answer as quickly as we did.

Yours,

JACK.

### GAMES IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

A review of a book published by Miss Nina B. Lamkin, head of the Department of Physical Education in the Western Illinois State Normal, Macomb, Illinois entitled, "Play, its Value and Fifty Games."

*"The child in games and plays in which all join (teacher and pupils) ascends from the world of nature to the world of humanity; from the world of things to the world of self-activity; from the material and the earthly to the spiritual."*—W. T. Harris.

Miss Lamkin has given, in this little book, an outline of the value of play both in physical development and in the much more important and delicate development of human companionship and power for co-operative activity.

Every teacher of children should have taken enough training under a good physical director and have made such a study of the development of

the physical, mental, and spiritual natures of children as to enable him to so direct their play as to secure this co-ordinate growth of the whole child. It is growth of this all-around and interrelated kind which is planned for and stimulated by this book. It is not enough to simply require children to stand properly, breathe properly, and to merely correct bodily defects, but the boy and girl must feel the relation of these things to personal character, refinement, and pleasant social intercourse. The nervous child should know that by healthful care of the body and by joining in a joyous way in the social activities of companions his condition would be improved fifty per-



The strong and independent should know that life can be even better worth the living by it for the sensitiveness of others by a direction and control of acts which enable a group to act together in mass or rhythmic effort.

In the chapter *What is Play?* Miss Minn says, "To the children it is the connecting link between the mental, moral, and the spiritual growth. Hope, anticipation, uncertain de-concentration, bubbling expectations all are wrapped up in those minutes of contest."

In the chapter on directed sport it is shown that true teaching organizes what comes spontaneously. When well guided wrong tendencies can be corrected and character formed through play. "Play simply, quietly, gently, and with alertness. Get results through creating an interest in the activity. \* \* \* Go with boys and girls for a cross-country for seeds, autumn leaves, insects,

grasses, ferns, anything that will teach a love of the out-of-doors and an interest in nature."

Another valuable chapter is the one on "The Varied and Valuable Development That Comes Through Play." In no other way can the teacher get the friendship and co-operative spirit of the children enlisted in the work of the school so quickly. "Play brings the boys and the girls out of themselves, makes them one of a mass, conforming to the rules of the game as a citizen conforms to the rules of the country in which he lives.

The game teaches thoughtfulness of others, alertness, discipline, the right spirit in competition, the gracious, the manly and the womanly way to bear defeat as well as victory, a lesson which many of us need to recall. Well directed play draws out the child and forms a connecting link in his development between the school and the home."

An important direction is "to fit the



A GAME OF FOX AND HOUND.

work to the child, not the child to the work." "The individual child needs your thoughtful attention."

The fifty games for which complete directions are given include an excellent variety. Most of them are so arranged that they may be played either in the school house or out of doors. The following is the list of hygienic and social results that should be gotten out of them:

Spontaneous activity of the individual and of the mass, a rare kind of discipline-*self-government*.

Alertness.

Skill of movement.

Power of attention.

Quickness of perception.

Fairness in contest.

Responsibility of being one of a mass.

Freedom in action, at the same time the conforming to rules.

Courtesy, thoughtfulness and culture.

Some help for the self-conscious child.

Some strength for the nervous child.

Some awakening for the dull child.

The spirit of a gracious victor.

The spirit of a good loser.

Team spirit and not a desire for individual honors.

There are a number of illustrations in the book of which we reproduce one of the game of Fox and Hound. This game requires quick thought and action, as on the word of command the path of the runners may be changed by the children clasping hands on the lines forward and back instead of across the field as shown.

### My Neighbor.

I have a new neighbor just over the way,  
 She was moving in on the first of May.  
 When she took in her household goods, I saw  
 They were nothing but rubbish and sticks and straw;  
 But when I made her a call just now,  
 I found she had furnished her house somehow  
 All trim and tidy and nice and neat,  
 The prettiest cottage in all the street.  
 Of thistledown silk was her carpet fine,  
 A thousand times better and softer than mine;  
 Her curtains, to shut out the heat and light,  
 Were woven of blossoms pink and white;  
 And the dainty roof of her tiny home  
 Was a broad green leaf like an emerald dome;  
 'Tis the cosiest nook that you ever did see,  
 Mrs. Yellowbird's house in the apple tree.

—*Youth's Companion*.

## A MATTER OF ATTENDANCE.

BY MABEL FLETCHER.

The clock hand had almost reached the half hour, when Miss Severn, after a glance at her neatly-filled boards, drew her abstract from the pages of her register and gazed at it with a smile. Ordinarily the sight of that red-ruled sheet brought anything but joy to her heart; indeed, on certain Friday nights at the end of the months, when all the lean columns had to be added and balanced and twisted and turned to balance with still other columns, she wept silently and long, and could only see the joys of existence when her brother took the paper from her and handed her instead a box of chocolates and a volume of Hardy.

She smiled again as her eye traveled quickly up and down the four columns of bold naughts she had made so joyously day by day—a slow, humorous smile that only broadened as the seventh grade teacher entered the room.

"I'm still at it, Miss Wade," she laughed. "I dreamed last night that Anna Todzi had the mumps and Eddie Karluski got run over by the interurban—I had to cast my eye on this precious document to reassure myself."

Miss Ward threw down her gloves and laughed. "Who would have thought we could have stirred up such interest in attendance just by our two rooms running a race?" she said. "I've had just four people out this whole month—and you've had just the two?"

Miss Severn nodded complacently. "Only two this whole month, and this

is the last day. Wilhelm Tanzijus' mother tried to keep him out yesterday to help wash, but he sneaked out the back door and got here just before nine. She didn't send for him."

Miss Ward laughed again. "My people are fairly wild," she said. "Even the big hulks of boys are interested—in fact, I believe they're more interested than the girls. Karl Bielin-ski's been here every day on crutches. Any other time a pain in his little finger would be a good excuse for a week's absence; now a sprained ankle amounts to nothing."

Miss Ward had barely vanished in the doorway when an excited little figure burst into the fourth grade room. It was Tommie White.

"Miss Ward ain't goin' to have no hundred per cent to-day," he cried. "Jed Smith's uncle killed hisself last night!"

The mingled emotions with which she heard Tommie's unexpected declarations so surprised Miss Severn that she suddenly laughed—a purely involuntary laugh at the grim humor of the thing. She abruptly sent Tommie to his seat. But the glad news had spread, and the small fourth graders, who had poured in from the yard, were already gathered in groups discussing the calamity that had befallen the luckless seventh graders, and that meant almost certain victory to themselves. The orange and gold college pennant that was to go to the room with the best record in attendance hung over the bulletin board in the

hall, and every now and then a small urchin rushed out to it to gloat and purse up the lip if a seventh grader paused on his way upstairs. In one corner of the schoolroom a boy with a shining celluloid collar entranced a big-eyed audience as he described the finding of the body; in another a small girl in a stiff pink dress held the center of the stage because her father had loaned the dead man the rope with which he had taken his life. Miss Severn, harkening, was aghast, and immediately invented various errands for the little gloaters, but new tongues took up the tale, and the excitement grew.

Nor did it decrease during the morning. At recess the primary teacher, drawing painfully on the board a cat with an arched back, was convulsed to hear the following float in at her window:

"The seventh grade is on the shelf  
'Cause Jed Smith's uncle killed hisself,  
Oh-h, oh-h, oh *my!*"

And the little first graders paused in their game of tag to shriek joyously the refrain, "Oh-h! Oh-h! Oh, *my!*"

At noon as they walked home for luncheon Miss Ward looked at Miss Severn, and there was doubt in her glance.

"Saints above!" she said. "I wish this day were over! It's going to break hearts if my people don't win over your little ones. Jed Smith's coming back this afternoon, but we can't get the pennant anyway, unless you have three children out this afternoon."

"I shan't have anyone out," said Miss Severn, serenely.

*Down the street* in a shrill falsetto sounded the words that had begun to

burn themselves into her brain:

"The seventh grade is on the shelf  
'Cause Jed Smith's uncle killed hisself  
Oh-h, oh-h, oh *my!*"

"I told them to stop that!" she cried indignantly, and the principal laughed.

That afternoon children were unusually eager to get back to school. Even those who were not in the race took sides with one room or the other, and hooted at the enemy, at the same time keeping open a wary eye for eavesdropping teachers. It was reported that Jim Gray in the sixth grade had bet Karl Sims ten agates that the fourth grade would carry off the prize. There promised to be excitement, possibly the bliss of a fight, in that neck of the woods.

David Gray and Karl Gresch, two seventh graders, walking slowly along the river bank, discussed the situation moodily.

"They'll all be there," said Karl, gloomily. "There go three of the little dagoes now." He pointed down the path. Suddenly David grasped his arm. "Let's shut 'em up in the ice-house," he said excitedly. "Quick! Help me out! I've got a plan—"

"But," interposed the astonished Karl "we'll get Cain when Miss Ward—"

"Shucks!" David looked at his companion in disgust. "Haven't you got any nerve? Cowardie-calf!"

"Aw, go on, I was just jokin'." said Karl quickly, and David whistled.

The fourth graders turned warily. David motioned frantically, and pointed mysteriously in the direction of the ice-house. Finally their curiosity could no longer be restrained, and they came

slowly back, with wonder in their round eyes.

"Say, didnt' your teacher ask for a pigeon to draw this afternoon?" questioned David craftily.

"Yes," returned Gustav Tanzijus, after a pause.

Once more David rose to the occasion.

"Well, come over to the ice-house and help us catch one. Miss Ward wants one too."

Karl opened his mouth in amazement. David Gray, pride of his Sunday school teacher's heart, lying like that on such short notice! He swallowed a gulp of admiration.

Unsuspectingly the guileless fourth graders followed. As they went they bragged and crowed over the coming victory, and Karl's fingers more than once ached for a stone. But David walked quickly on, feeding the vanity of his victims.

The Harkness school was on the extreme edge of town close to the river, and a block from the building there was an old ice-house. To this David led the way.

"Go in quick!" he said softly to pudgy Emil Skuginna, "and be still. They're in the cupola."

Emil went in, and Gustav Tanzijus and Tommie White, with trusting souls, followed. David, with a whoop, banged the door shut after them, fastened the rusty hasp on the outside, and then turned six cartwheels for pure joy.

"Oh, gee!" he said, "Oh, gee! Come on to school."

From the building behind there went up a mighty roar, for the fourth graders at once saw the trap. The

sound of it was music to David's soul, and still shouting, he pulled Karl after him down the path.

Half way they met an old man with a bulging umbrella and a basket of horseradish roots. He looked at the boys suspiciously.

"What you done to them children in that ice-house?" he said, his keen old brown eyes trying to hold Karl's shifting gray ones.

"We ain't done nothin'," he laughed. "The O'Malley kids burned up the back fence for a camp fire, and the old man's locked 'em up till school time," he answered, and marveled at the easiness of sin.

The old man glared a little, shifted his bundle, and finally went on, apparently satisfied. The ice-house belonged to a man named O'Malley.

David's face fell. "He'll let 'em out soon's he gets there. They'll tell on us," he said, and pulled out a silver watch. Karl looked over his shoulder. It lacked but ten minutes of school time, and their plan had failed.

Then Karl flung his cap into the air, for the old man turned within a short distance of the ice-house, and for some erratic reason, picked his way across the narrow strip of ploughed land that lay between the river path and the street.

The boys looked at each other and grinned, and with one accord turned and walked sedately to school.

Inside the old ice-house there was a sight to bring tears to the eyes of a Gorgon. Fat little Emil lay prone on the damp earth, the tears sliding off his hard, round cheeks. "They ain't no pigeons here," he sobbed for the fifth time, and kicked the ground.

Gustav Tanzijus, crying silently, was pounding fruitlessly at the locked door. Tommie White alone, though his cheeks were tear-stained, was standing in the middle of the room and thinking hard.

Suddenly Emil sat up. His slow German mind had just comprehended the full horror of the thing.

"*Mein Gott in Himmel!*" he screamed. "*We'll be late! We'll be late!*"

"We won't get there at all if you don't stop blubberin' and get to work," returned Tommie savagely.

"It was ten minutes till the bell," said poor Gustav, and looked at Tommie.

In a frenzy they threw themselves against different places in the ice-house, hoping to find a weak board. They pounded, they kicked, they beat with their small fists, but to no avail, for the wall was at least a foot thick on account of the sawdust lining. They battered all three at the door, but the rusty hasp held maliciously, and they cried heartily.

Then Tommie came across an old spade that had once been used in scraping sawdust off the ice. "We've got to dig out," he chattered, his little frame shaking with nervousness. "We ain't goin' to be late—we ain't. I'll dig first, and you kids be ready."

He planted the spade in the dark earth, and turned up a feeble handful. A sob shook his body, but he bit his lip and tried again. In a few moments a good-sized hole had been made, for the ice-house was an old one, not quite waterproof, and there had been plenty of soft April rains. Next Gustav snatched the spade, and dug like a

small demon. The harder he worked, the angrier he grew, and every time the spade jerked his body, he cursed. In fact, so wrought up were they, that they all cursed, slowly and methodically, with no more idea of what they were saying than their sweet-faced Sunday school teachers. They would have been as surprised to hear what they were saying as to find themselves quoting Shelley. They had but one common thought: to get to school before the tardy bell rang.

It was a miracle. To this day no one understands how those smallurchins dug their way out in nine minutes, but they did.

Then they ran, weak and trembling. Tommie had hurt his nose, and it was bleeding profusely, but he never faltered. Someone met them; they dimly descried that it was three big fourth grade girls who had been sent out to watch for them. The girls caught them by the hand and ran with them. Not a word was said; time was too precious.

The principal, with a glance at the clock, had just reached for the bell, when a look and a grin that passed from boy to boy in her room, made her pause a moment. That instant there was a commotion in the hall below, a scramble, a gasping, a sob, and three small boys, covered with blood and sawdust were pushed into the fourth grade room. Then the bell rang.

From the fourth grade there went up a roar of joy, anger and wonder, for the victory so dearly purchased, was theirs. And in the seventh grade, David and Karl, hearing it, looked in the principal's eye and read their doom.

## COMMENT.

### SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

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GEO. P. BROWN, Editor

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should be studied critically; not accepted without question.

The use of statistics gathered for one purpose, when made a source from which to deduce facts in an altogether different field, is most uncertain and difficult. Before one assumes that results worthy of consideration have been thus attained, he should test them with some of the known facts in the new field and check any gross oversight as to what information the statistics used do really give.

Teachers and school officers are not, as a rule, trained statisticians. The reports they make, generally go only into such detail as will furnish direct information on the one subject involved. This is true particularly of statistics of school attendance. It is necessary to know how many pupils are enrolled in each grade in order to know whether there is a proper distribution of the teaching force for the various classes, hence enrollment statistics generally give but the one fact of the total number attending in September in each grade.

From the information the teacher of each room has this record might be made so as to give, also, such other details as the number in each grade received from the grade below, the number not passed and so held in the grade from the preceding class, and the number of those entering as new pupils in the school system. But superintendents have not heretofore tabulated all of these facts. Without this detailed information of promotions the total figures of enrollment in each grade can give no exact information with regard to the "elimination of pupils from the school." Yet it is on these tables of mere enrollment that Professor Edward L. Thorndike has prepared his monograph. On such a basis he asserts that he makes it abundantly clear that a fifth of the white children entering city schools stay only to the fifth year. His estimated percentages show this to be the case in cities and towns where compulsory attendance laws are rigidly enforced just the same as in places having no such enforcement. For instance, Boston seems to have in the fifth grade but 80.5 percent of the number that Professor Thorndike estimates should be there, the other nineteen and one-half percent being assumed to be out of school entirely. And in Malden, Mass., where every child is claimed by the school authorities to be accounted for, the enrollment record by grades shows 1,206 in the first grade and but 603 in the fifth grade for the year 1904. After making his estimated allowances Professor Thorndike still fails to account for fifteen percent of the pupils he thinks should be in the fifth grade, indicating that about one hundred children of eleven to thirteen years of age who should be in the fifth grade are out of school, together with similar numbers who should be

### THE ELIMINATION OF PUPILS FROM SCHOOL.

That statistics may be as full of fallacies and fancies as of facts is being shown again by the use critics of present educational methods are making of school reports. The most persistent error of this kind in the air at this time is the assertion that the records of school enrollment by grades show that large percentages of the pupils drop out of school at the end of each grade.

Bulletin No. 4 for 1907, issued by the National Bureau of Education, and prepared by Professor Edward L. Thorndike, is entitled, "The Elimination of Pupils from School," and is undoubtedly responsible for these statements. Professor Thorndike's monograph

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GEO. P. BROWN, Editor

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#### THE ELIMINATION OF PUPILS FROM SCHOOL.

That statistics may be as full of fallacies and fancies as of facts is being shown again by the use critics of present educational methods are making of school reports. The most persistent error of this kind in the air at this time is the assertion that the records of school enrollment by grades show that large percentages of the pupils drop out of school at the end of each grade.

Bulletin No. 4 for 1907, issued by the National Bureau of Education, and prepared by Professor Edward L. Thorndike, is entitled, "The Elimination of Pupils from School," and is undoubtedly responsible for these statements. Professor Thorndike's monograph

should be studied critically; not accepted without question.

The use of statistics gathered for one purpose, when made a source from which to deduce facts in an altogether different field, is most uncertain and difficult. Before one assumes that results worthy of consideration have been thus attained, he should test them with some of the known facts in the new field and check any gross oversight as to what information the statistics used do really give.

Teachers and school officers are not, as a rule, trained statisticians. The reports they make, generally go only into such detail as will furnish direct information on the one subject involved. This is true particularly of statistics of school attendance. It is necessary to know how many pupils are enrolled in each grade in order to know whether there is a proper distribution of the teaching force for the various classes, hence enrollment statistics generally give but the one fact of the total number attending in September in each grade.

From the information the teacher of each room has this record might be made so as to give, also, such other details as the number in each grade received from the grade below, the number not passed and so held in the grade from the preceding class, and the number of those entering as new pupils in the school system. But superintendents have not heretofore tabulated all of these facts. Without this detailed information of promotions the total figures of enrollment in each grade can give no exact information with regard to the "elimination of pupils from the school." Yet it is on these tables of mere enrollment that Professor Edward L. Thorndike has prepared his monograph. On such a basis he asserts that he makes it abundantly clear that a fifth of the white children entering city schools stay only to the fifth year. His estimated percentages show this to be the case in cities and towns where compulsory attendance laws are rigidly enforced just the same as in places having no such enforcement. For instance, Boston seems to have in the fifth grade but 80.5 percent of the number that Professor Thorndike estimates should be there, the other nineteen and one-half percent being assumed to be out of school entirely. And in Malden, Mass., where every child is claimed by the school authorities to be accounted for, the enrollment record by grades shows 1,206 in the first grade and but 603 in the fifth grade for the year 1904. After making his estimated allowances Professor Thorndike still fails to account for fifteen percent of the pupils he thinks should be in the fifth grade, indicating that about one hundred children of eleven to thirteen years of age who should be in the fifth grade are out of school, together with similar numbers who should be

in the other grades. This, of course, does not agree with known facts and should vitiate the entire discussion.

The reader of Professor Thorndike's monograph soon becomes curious to learn where he gets any figures showing the number of pupils entering the school on which to estimate his percentages of those eliminated in each succeeding grade. The statistics he uses start with the number enrolled in the first grade, but give no information about how many of these are new pupils entering school and how many are retained from the previous year as not passed. Nor is there any reason to expect that the enrollment in any succeeding grade will be equal to the number of entering pupils of the school system.

Although Prof. Thorndike does not state that he intends the percentages of elimination of pupils from school to be, as near as may be, percentages of those entering the school, the corrections and approximations he makes indicate that this is considered the proper basis from which to show the eliminations from school.

In seeking this basis for his percentages, Professor Thorndike has evidently failed to give full consideration to the fact that there is no "lock step" in American education. Children are not forced by overstrained, hot-house instruction to maintain the pace of the brighter half of the class, as is done, for instance, in Germany, with which schools Professor Thorndike compares ours unfavorably in regard to what is called "grade mortality." Because of this retention of over-age pupils in each of the lower grades, there will generally be found more pupils in any of the first four grades than enter the schools in any one year. This means that the percentage of elimination for any of these grades would show that more than 100 percent of the entering number were in each, as the enrollment of each is larger than the number of entering pupils of the school system. For instance, from the report of age retentions in Connecticut schools for 1903, it may be deduced that with 1,000 pupils entering the first grade of a school system at six years old on each successive year, there would be found an enrollment of at least 1700 in the first grade, 1600 in the second, 1400 in the third and 1100 in the fourth, thus giving the percentages retained after elimination for these grades as 170 percent, 160 percent, 140 percent, and 110 percent, respectively.

Mr. Thorndike, however, does not so estimate it, but attempts to get the number entering a school system by averaging and adjusting the enrollment for grades 1, 2, and 3. With regard to estimating this basis from which to compute his percentages of elimination, he says on pages 45 and 46, "The main difficulty is in inferring from the number in grades 1, 2, and 3, the number beginning school in the course of a year. My correction for this is arbitrary. I have simply made the estimate of the number of pupils beginning school for any city which seemed most *likely in view of the comparative sizes of the*

population of grades 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, and of whatever other relevant information I possessed concerning the city. For instance, in Baltimore—I have, in view of other known facts about the city, taken the population of grade 2 as a measure of the number of pupils beginning school. In Denver, New Haven, St. Louis,—I have judged that the average of the enrollment in grades 1, 2, and 3 was a correct representative."

Professor Thorndike's arbitrary assumption of the basal figures on which to estimate percentages of elimination seems to be the uninitiated in the science of statistics to be a complete acknowledgment of failure to get anything of value from his intricate study of school reports. The thing his study should have made known definitely, he is driven to arbitrarily assume, namely the number of pupils entering the school system. What his assumption means in the case of Baltimore schools will indicate the extent of this criticism of his work. The following figures are taken from his monograph.

In his study of Baltimore schools, Professor Thorndike uses the enrollments published by the Board of Education for the years 1898, 1899, and 1902. For the year 1898 the figures for each grade are as follows:

1st grade—	18,373.
2d grade—	11,592.
3d grade—	9,434.
4th grade—	8,272.
5th grade—	6,447.
6th grade—	4,022.
7th grade—	2,471.
8th grade—	1,640.

His arbitrary assumption as stated above is that the number enrolled in the second grade (for this year 11,592) is equal to the number entering school in that year. On this basis corrected for the average of years given, death rate, etc., he works out the following percentages, of pupils who remain in school for the successive grades from the fourth up:

For the fourth grade—	71 per cent.
For the fifth grade—	53 per cent.
For the sixth grade—	32 per cent.
For the seventh grade—	22 per cent.
Eighth grade—	14 per cent.

The criticism of his use of the second year enrollment as the basis of these percentages rests on several facts. First, as outlined in this article, the attempt was made to show that in any of the first four grades, the enrollment will probably be greater than the number of pupils entering school in any one year. Secondly, Professor Thorndike himself gives in the last part of his monograph a table showing the distribution by age of pupils in the schools, which shows that it is impossible that eleven thousand pupils should enter school every year in Baltimore. This table gives the following number of pupils of each age in the Baltimore schools for 1898:

Number of Pupils 6 years old.....	6115
Number of Pupils 7 years old.....	7325
Number of Pupils 8 years old.....	7359
Number of Pupils 9 years old.....	7788

Number of Pupils 10 years old.....	7757
Number of Pupils 11 years old.....	7099
Number of Pupils 12 years old.....	6889
Number of Pupils 13 years old.....	5486
Number of Pupils 14 years old.....	3876

table would indicate that it is a possibility for more than about 8,000 children to enter the schools every year. A number as the basis of estimating the retention of pupils from school based on this table, we find more than a hundred per cent in the fourth grade of the schools (8,272 instead of 71% as he gives it, and 89% in the fifth grade. Professor Thorndike's study has some value in showing the striking fact which this interpretation of the tables of enrollment shows, that so many children are held back in the first and second primary grades. The delay is due to the three and four years they spend in each grade, for the kind of work given in the first and second grades, makes it difficult for the teacher to adjust the work to their real needs. Superintendents must recognize this and organize special classes for over-age pupils in the grades.

G. A. B.

#### N. E. A. AT CLEVELAND.

Advance proofs of the Cleveland program are in hand. The discussions are to be directed by the strongest men and women in school work.

Addresses of welcome will be given on Tuesday afternoon, June 29, and an address on the educational progress of the year by Charles F. Thwing.

Monday evening the discussion will be on the Industrial Element in Education. During the president's address there will be an address by Cloudesley S. H. Brereton, London, England, on "School Training and Vocations," and a paper by Commissioner W. S. Draper on the "Adaptation of the School to Industrial Ends."

Tuesday evening, President David Starr gives an address on "Agassiz the Teacher," Dean Andrew F. West discusses "Personal Touch in Teaching," and Superintendent Wm. H. Maxwell follows with an address on "Personal Power of the Teacher in School Work." These three men are among the longest personalities in the profession and their addresses unfold the trinity of complete living, and doing, and influencing which must characterize the true teacher.

Wednesday afternoon three of the best women devoting themselves to husbandry will talk to the teachers. Sarah Louise Arnold's subject is the "Reconciliation of Cross Purposes in the Education of Women." Jane Addams, of Hull House, discusses the "School and the Immigrant Child," and Principal Ella Flagg Young, of the Normal School and the Practice of Ethics."

Thursday morning is the last general session. Superintendent G. Brumbaugh discusses the "Function of Education in a Democracy," a topic to be given by Superintendent G. Brumbaugh. Other papers are

"Negro Education and the Nation," by Booker T. Washington, and "The Rein and Spur," by J. C. Willis, president of Louisville University.

The departments have some very strong programs, also. The National Council of Education meets on Monday morning, June 29, to discuss the preliminary reports of two important committees. One is on the shortage of teachers and the other on provisions for exceptional children. On Tuesday morning, the committee on Moral Training reports, and there will be addresses by Commissioner Elmer Brown, and President James H. Baker.

Wednesday morning, a memorial address on Dr. F. Louis Soldan will be given by Superintendent Ben Blewett, and Thursday morning the Committee on Industrial Education for Rural Schools will report.

The Department of Kindergarten Education will hold two sessions, one Tuesday morning, and one Wednesday morning, and on Thursday morning will meet with the National Society for Scientific Study of Education for the discussion of "The Kindergarten and its Relation to Elementary Education."

The Department of Elementary Education will begin its discussion Tuesday afternoon with a paper on "The Physiology and Psychology of Education," by Geo. P. Brown, to be discussed by Pres. John W. Cook, and Prin. Ella Flagg Young. Superintendent James H. Van Sickle will follow with a discussion of the attention which should be given to the technique of Reading, Arithmetic and Writing, in which Supt. W. C. Martindale, Prof. P. Monroe Harbold, and Supt. James E. Bryan will take part.

Wednesday morning this department meets with those of the Kindergarten and of Art. On Thursday evening Supt. R. R. Reeder will discuss "Moral Training an Essential Factor in Elementary School Work," followed by State Superintendent F. A. Cotton; and "Mathematics in the Elementary Grades" will be discussed by Prof. Robert J. Aley, John G. Thompson, and Mrs. Josephine W. Heermans.

The Department of Secondary Education has a strong program of timely subjects arranged by its president, Principal G. B. Morrison. On Thursday afternoon the valuable round table conferences on Mathematics, Foreign Languages, English, and Science, will be held; each under an able leader.

The Department of Normal Schools will meet Wednesday morning and Thursday evening. A. O. Thomas, President of the Kearney, Nebraska, Normal is president. Subjects for discussion are: "The Status of the Normal School;" "Industrial Arts in Normal Schools," by H. H. Seerley; and "An Ideal Course," by E. Oram Lyte. At the Thursday evening meeting, President J. A. Keith will talk on the "Relation of Heads of Departments in the Normal to the Practice School," and President L. H. Jones discusses the "Relative Values of Observation and Practice Teaching."

The Manual Training Department will attempt a thorough discussion of "The Place of Industries in Education." This depart-

ment meets on Tuesday, both in the morning and afternoon for the discussion of this topic, and on Thursday evening the attempt will be made to work out a program of Industrial Education.

G. Stanley Hall will take part in the discussions of the Music Department, taking up the subject of the "Psychology of Music and the Light It Throws upon Musical Education."

Other Departments that have programs of general interest are the Child Study, in which George E. Johnson, and Jane Addams discuss the value of the playground; The Library Department has William A. Brett, of the Cleveland Public Library, President David Felmley, and James H. Canfield on its program; the new Department of Rural and Agricultural Education will discuss School and Home Gardens; and the National Organizations of Women holds a separate session on Thursday morning devoted to Suggestions for Effective Co-operation, to Laws Regarding Child Welfare, and to Woman's Work in the Socialization of the Schools.

The week's work will close with a Play Ground Festival, to be held on Friday afternoon in Rockefeller Park. This is an athletic entertainment by primary and grammar grade children.

#### DR. F. LOUIS SOLDAN.

(A tribute by Miss Margaret Glen. Read at a meeting of the Yeatman High School in honor of Superintendent Soldan's memory.)

It needs no word of mine to attest to the worth and work of F. Louis Soldan. His life speaks for itself and his life was his work.

He was a great man, trained in thought, large brained, clear-visioned. Those who have known him long, saw in the man of today the fulfillment of the promise of his young manhood. His development and progress have been marked and steady.

It was as a co-worker that I feel I knew him best, yet the picture that persistently presents itself to my mind is one of a long-ago day when he was standing in my doorway; a gentleman of fine presence, faultlessly neat in his attire, watching with discerning eye the movements of the children. I was a stranger in the city and did not know him, but there could be no mistake as to what he was. His attitude, his glance, everything bespoke the master. He withdrew with a nod and smile of kindly approval which gave me a feeling of kindness for the man which the years have not removed.

His teachers and those most intimately connected with him speedily became impressed with the accuracy and rapidity of his grasp of situation and of the promptness and decision of his action. He was commander-in-chief in all that the word implies as regards resourcefulness in planning, success in organizing, and thoroughness in executing.

Another marked characteristic was his power of judging ability. He understood perfectly the distribution of responsibility. When he came saying, "I want you to help me in

this," the feeling at once aroused was that the task could be done and done acceptably. The measure of confidence implied by the request inspired one with the desire to fulfill his expectations. It was this wise division of labor that enabled the man to accomplish so skillfully the immense amount of work that he did.

With us, his teachers, he was ever helpful, tolerant, tactful. His visits to the class-room, made in the spirit of kindly interest and sympathy, produced no feeling of restraint, so deadening in its effect upon the work, but were rather a source of satisfaction and gain to teacher and pupil alike.

He was a born teacher. He took the keenest personal interest in whatever he taught and showed its relation to the life and thought of the time. In the indifferent, he awakened interest; in the apt and willing, enthusiasm. His touches of humor gave a human interest to his class work. Indeed, it was the man's personality as much as his instruction which won the love and loyalty of his pupils. He expected them to work and work hard, but when the task was severe they were sure of his sympathy, and when it was well done of his appreciation. He made them feel that the effort was worth while.

His devotion to school work, however, did not lessen his interest in men, and in affairs. He was a great student and was thoroughly posted on all questions of the day, both in our own country and abroad. He was a ready and forceful speaker on any subject, interesting to a broad-minded student. His achievements were great; his influence far-reaching; and great was his service to the cause of education.

In the management of the school affairs of our city he was wisely conservative and intelligently progressive. He has left a system of schools of which the city, the state and the nation may well be proud. Our loss is great, but our heritage, rich.

#### SUPERINTENDENT COOLEY ON LEAVE OF ABSENCE.

For rest and recuperation Superintendent E. G. Cooley, of Chicago, has gone to Europe for three months' travel. He may not return in time for the N.E.A. at Cleveland. Dr. N. C. Schaeffer is taking his place in making the final arrangements for the N.E.A. program, making the third successive program that Dr. Schaeffer has organized.

#### COUNTRY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OF ILLINOIS.

One of the most energetic movements among teachers is this organization of a Country Teachers' Association. Its first meeting is to be held July 22 and 23, at Macomb, Illinois. Mabel Carney, the efficient teacher of the country school used for observation work by the Macomb Normal, is the president, and Alma Bertholf, of Rushville, is secretary.

The program includes discussions of such topics as, "Country Teachers and County Su-

ndents," by State Superintendent F. G. "Education for Service and Mastery," e State Superintendent of Louisiana, B. Aswell; "Along Country Roads in Educational Way," by County Superintendent O. J. Kern; "The Training of Coun- teachers," by Principal G. F. Snyder, of duk County Normal School, Wisconsin, y F. G. Bouser, of Macomb Normal, W. Wood, State Country School In- r of Wisconsin; Consolidation of ry Schools comes in for discussion, also, tion in agriculture. President E. Ben- Andrews will address the Association ursday, July 23.

most interesting feature of the meeting e the Country School Exhibit, which lude photographs of buildings and ent, heating, furniture, libraries, school ls, etc. Reports of clubs for study on -life, patrons' meetings, etc.; and an t of work done in country schools, of s, etc.

#### SHAKESPEARE AT THE N.E.A.

Ben Greet Players, who give "Shakes- plays as Shakespeare wrote them," will t a series of performances during the of the convention of the National Edu- Association in Cleveland, June 29 to

se presentations of "As You Like It," idsummer Night's Dream." "The Tem- and others will have a special charm in given in the open air on the college s of Western Reserve University. The irect Players have appeared at most of ading American and Canadian Colleges t Oxford, Cambridge, and other places land. They have played also for many associations throughout Canada and the l States and have everywhere renewed iasm in the spirit and letter of the great and dramatist. Acted and staged in ethan manner gives a quaint flavor that o the charm of the presentation out un- y and trees.

#### NORTHERN ILLINOIS PRINCIPALS MEET MAY 15 AND 16.

Superintendents' and Principals' Asso- of Northern Illinois will hold its third meeting at DeKalb, on Friday and ay, May 15 and 16.

program will consist of a discussion report of the committee of seven as fore, with the addition of certain other ns raised by the discussions of former gs. The Friday afternoon program will follows:

"The Place and Function of Knowledge System of Education by Adjustment." sed by Dr. D. P. McMillan, Head of ild-Study Department of the Chicago s, and Prin. D. A. Tear, Principal of adstone School, Chicago.

"The Spiritual Nature of Man in a 1 of Education by Adjustment." Dis- by Supt. A. V. Greenman, of West

Aurora, and Dr. John W. Cook, of the De- Kalb Normal School.

The committee feels that these questions are real problems in the minds of many, and that they are entitled to serious discussion by our most competent men.

The report of the committee of seven will consist of Outlined Courses of Study for the intermediate period of school life in accord- ance with the principles laid down in the Sec- ond Year Book.

These meetings have proven very profitable to those who have attended them in the past. It is hoped that a greater number of the Su- perintendents and Principals of Northern Illinois will be in attendance this year than before. The Association is doing a unique work and each one should avail himself of the opportunity to help and be a part of that work.

The Third Year Book will be distributed about May 1.

#### PEACE DAY.

The American Peace Society with head- quarters at 31 Beacon street, Boston, has named Monday, May 18, the anniversary of the opening of the first Hague conference, as Peace Day, on which date it asks the public schools of the nation to present special exer- cises suited to the occasion. To assist in the work, the association has prepared sample programs which may be procured upon appli- cation. It recommends that not to exceed one hour be set apart for these exercises. Such observances afford opportunity to bring be- fore the young, the newer ideals of the rela- tions of races and nations.

#### DENVER WANTS THE N.E.A. IN 1909.

In addition to being a most delightful place to hold a large summer meeting, Denver seems to be the logical place for the next meeting of the N.E.A. after Cleveland. A new auditorium with adequate seating capacity, and many excellent hotels and accommodations to care for 30,000 or 40,000 people assure com- fort. The magnificent scenery and climate add many attractions. Denver wants the As- sociation.

#### SUMMER SESSION.

The University of Illinois announces for its *Summer Session*, which will open June 15 and close August 14, an increased faculty and an enlarged curriculum.

*The Faculty* is almost entirely selected from the regular instructional staff of the Univer- sity, reinforced by a number of scholars and specialists from other institutions.

*The Instruction* is of the same quality as in the winter session. In addition a full course of public lectures is provided, offering a wide range of instruction of a more popu- lar and general nature.

*The Nature of the Work* is arranged to serve two purposes: (1) to meet as fully as possible the demands of teachers who desire special work that will fit them for advance- ment; (2) to enable these and regular Uni-

versity students to do, in the summer, work towards graduation.

*Credit* is given in the courses on the basis that the summer session is one-half of one semester. The summer session catalog, giving full details of the curriculum, together with the details of *admission*, of the granting of *scholarships*, and of all other matters in connection with the Session will be sent free on request.

THOMAS ARKLE CLARK, Director,  
Urbana, Illinois.

## BOOK TABLE

**SCHOOL REPORTS AND SCHOOL EFFICIENCY**, by David S. Snedden and William H. Allen, prepared for the New York Committee on Physical Welfare of School Children. 183 pages, cloth. The Macmillan Company, New York.

This is a book full of suggestions and information for every school superintendent and officer of school boards. There is a vast amount of information about the work and the needs of the schools, which never gets beyond a notebook or untabulated report blank, because we have no adequate conception of the value and real need of tabulated facts brought together in such relations as to show results, and cost, and future needs.

This book contains a great many forms for reports and information of different kinds, and suggests many improvements that will bring records into better relation so that they will have more meaning. The ten most suggestive pages are those from 118 to 128. On these pages lists of questions are given as to Plant, Receipts and Expenditures, the children, the enrollment and attendance, etc., each set of questions classified as to those generally answered in school reports; those seldom answered; and those never answered. An examination of the "seldom" and the "never" answered questions will show how vital many of them are to a knowledge of the schools necessary to direct improvement.

**TANNER'S HIGH SCHOOL ALGEBRA.**

By J. H. Tanner, Ph.D., Professor of Mathematics in Cornell University. Half leather, 8vo, 352 pages. Price, \$1.00. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

In the preparation of this book the author has received the co-operation of a number of high school teachers throughout the country, and as a result has produced a work which is adapted to actual conditions existing in secondary schools. It meets every real need encountered in the teaching of elementary algebra, and embodies features and methods of presentation which agree with the views of good teachers. It makes the transition from arithmetic to algebra as easy and natural as possible, and arouses the pupil's interest by *showing him* early some of the advantages of

algebra over arithmetic. The several topics are presented in the order of their simplicity, giving definitions only where they are needed, and insuring clearness of comprehension by an abundance of concrete illustrations and inductive questions. The book provides a large, well-chosen, and carefully graded set of exercises, the solution of which will help not only to fix in the pupil's mind the principles involved, but also further to unfold those principles. The author omits non-essentials, and yet fully meets the entrance requirements in elementary algebra of any college or university in this country.

**THE BAILEY-MANLY SPELLING BOOK**, by Eliza R. Bailey, teacher of elementary English in Boston, and John M. Manly, head of Department of English, University of Chicago. 154 pages, cloth. Price, 30 cents. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston, New York, Chicago.

This most interesting book is evidently the work of an observing teacher. It must have grown out of daily experience in the work of helping children to fix word forms. The authors have had the courage to abandon the stereotyped methods entirely and to fit the book to the needs of children as they have had to meet them in school work.

The work for the first three years is confined almost entirely to ear words, thus concentrating on a mastery of the written form for the spoken vocabulary. Once this is mastered the new words from the reading vocabulary are introduced rapidly. The arrangement is new, as the words are always arranged to read across the page, and sentences and selected passages are printed under each line. Lists for review are frequent. It is a mistake probably to put the lessons for all the eight grades in one book.

**FOOTE AND SKINNER'S EXPLORERS AND FOUNDERS OF AMERICA.** By Anna Elizabeth Foote, Department of History, Training School for Teachers, Jamaica, N. Y., and Avery Warner Skinner Superintendent of Schools, Oneida, N. Y. Cloth, 12mo, 310 pages, with illustrations. Price 60 cents. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

This is one of the well-known and popular series of Eclectic Readings, and is intended for use in the fourth and fifth years. It gives attractive biographical sketches of thirty-four prominent characters in the history of America, from the days of the earliest adventurers down to the Revolutionary War. Each character portrayed is a representative type of a period of activity or a phase of our country. Each sketch gives details that are sure to interest children, while the book as a whole presents all the most important events of our early history. The material has been put in the form of short sentences, expressed in easy colloquial style; and each sketch is followed by suggestive topics for oral or written composition. Many maps and pictures illustrate the narratives.

# SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION.

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JUNE, 1908

No. 10

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## EDUCATIONAL SURVEY.

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**Nation Education.** "Millions for war but not one cent for the promotion of education" is the verdict of Congress in its appropriations for the expenses of the government for the year ending June 30, 1909. One hundred thousand dollars was added to the Commissioner's salary and an additional \$250 for books and periodicals for the library of the Bureau of Education. What wonder that the London Times once said that the American government is "cheap and nasty." The Secretary of the Interior has recently requested that \$40,000 should be appropriated for the investigation of certain educational problems that are awaiting solution and can only be solved by the employment of experts. The beggarly salary of the Commissioner was raised to \$4,500 per annum, which is still meagre. The Superintendent of Schools in our largest cities receives an annual salary of \$10,000. Thousands of dollars have been appropriated by the House of Representatives for investigating the cause of the recent extraordinary rise in printing paper, for that was a financial proposition. Millions for investigating an industry but not one cent for the investigation of the education of the nation toward a more capable and honest social order.

All declare that "we must educate or perish by our own prosperity" but no one believes it with a conviction deep enough to insist upon entering upon it.

A people can be purged of sin only by the people themselves. The public is awake to the old time vulgar sins of bloody murder, robbery on the highway, the picking of pockets in a crowd, the forging of a check, the administering of deadly poison to an unsuspecting victim, the blackmailer, the Jack-the-Ripper, and the like. But they are not awake to the fact that the adulterator of food is a murderer, or the giver of a rake-off is a robber, or the seller of quack medicine or of impure water is an assassin, that the tax-dodger is a thief, the ballot-box stuffer is a forger, or that a railroad that kills or maims one employee in twenty-six, or a rotten tenement-house corporation that buys immunity for the violation of the orders of the health department, are infinitely worse than bandits.

The modern villain is decorous, is a pillar in the church, is a "good fellow." But he lights the fuse that fires the bomb that reduces hundreds and thousands to poverty and ruin in an hour. The bomb is too far from the "good fellow" who fires it for the ignorant multitude to see the connection.

These smooth-faced, smiling, sympathetic highwaymen are a grade of

sinners that the dull-eyed populace have not yet learned to know. They have their imitators in every community. The complexity of our social system makes it easy for them to hide in the brightest day and in the most public thoroughfare. They are often the observed of all observers.

There is no hope of succor except from education. There are signs that this conviction is taking root in the consciousness of the masses. But such consciousness without a corresponding education of heart and hand and head would work bloody ruin to our social order.

The burning question in this nation—as yet in a smouldering state—is, “What shall be the character of the education?”

“The conclusion of the whole matter is:—

\*“Our social organization has developed to a state where the old righteousness is not enough. We need an annual supplement to the Decalogue. \* \* Blind impulsive reactions are no longer to be trusted. Social defense is coming to be a matter for the expert. The rearing of dikes against faithlessness and fraud calls for intelligent social engineering.”

\**Sin and Society.* By Edward A. Ross, p. 41.

**State Politics and Education** Education in Illinois has a special interest in the candidates for Governor to be chosen at the coming primary election. Two candidates are before the electors of the Republican party; Richard Yates, the former governor, and Charles Deneen the present incumbent. There

is no commonwealth in the union that is more securely saddled and bridled and harder driven by a coterie of greedy politicians than is Illinois. Her history shows that this has ever been so, with occasional slight relief.

We are in danger of a return to the administration of Richard Yates. This gentleman was made governor by the former republican machine chiefly because he was the son of his father. He immediately set to work to prove his personal fitness for the office by setting up a machine of his own. He set to work at once to make the institutions he controlled subservient to his machine interests. The charitable institutions generally bowed the knee, and so far as it was safe to prostitute the educational institutions he did it. But education has a pretty stiff backbone in this state, whoever is governor. It declines to be interfered with. But it can be greatly hampered by the governor's demands that trustees send in their resignations when they refuse to obey orders. By this procedure the Macomb Normal School was much retarded in attaining efficiency. He could not do more without wrecking his machine.

But Mr. Yates has proved himself an expert in political mechanics. At the succeeding nominating convention he controlled enough votes to nominate either one of the other two candidates. These votes were given to Mr. Deneen on certain conditions. These conditions greatly handicapped Deneen during the early years of his administration. Yates wanted to be United States Senator in place of Mr. Cullom. Deneen's lack of enthusiasm in helping



him to his plum was part of the burden which broke the back of the alliance of the two men.

Mr. Deneen was a politician educated in the school of Billy Lorimer by Billy himself. But the governor has the instincts of a statesman, and these have been growing strong while his subserviency to party bosses has been growing weak. His source of weakness has been his ante-election promises, not all of which was it possible for him to make good.

He broke with the Lorimer crowd and has been determined that the legislature should give the people a primary election law which should take the control of the nomination of candidates out of the hands of the party politicians who were ever placing their own private advantage over the promise made in the campaign that something should be done for the people that should free them from slavery to these politicians. Mr. Deneen has other public interests in mind that the people desire to have consummated. Education is interested especially in a codification of the School Law which shall put Illinois in the lead in its educational system. A committee has been appointed by the governor to report upon the matter. It was the governor's suggestion that this work should be undertaken.

Judging the future by the past, it follows, as the night the day, that if Mr. Yates becomes governor any legislation that shall advance education will be pigeon-holed for the next four years.

The Lorimer crowd have now returned again to Yates whom they accused of all manner of political and ad-

ministrative uncleanness four years ago. Why this return? Because he has now promised to be good and obey orders.

A group of the present general assembly have joined hands with the Lorimer crowd to get even with Deneen for his disobedience to orders. A committee of the lower house has been investigating the state charitable institutions and it has filled the ears of the people with press reports such as it suited the committee's interest to have made.

What the educational and charitable institutions need is legislation that shall free their management entirely from partisan politics and partisan control. These institutions have never been managed solely in the interest of the people who pay the bills, and of the inmates for whom they are supported. So long as they are subject to partisan control, they will be administered by politicians and for the payment of political debts.

Our state affairs are in a chaotic condition. To entrust their management to Richard Yates for another four years would be to make chaos more chaotic.

It seems pretty clear that if Richard Yates shall be nominated by the republicans, a democrat will be called upon to try his hand at piloting our ship of state during the next four years. The disgusting horse play of the present house of representatives during its long and expensive session is a strong suggestion to the electors of the state that the party at present in control would better take a four years' vacation.

## THE NEW SOCIAL GOSPEL.

GEORGE P. BROWN.

It has been thousands of years since a new fundamental idea became active in the world which eventually revolutionized human society. This notion was the distinction between sin and crime. Sin, the violation of the law of God; Crime, the violation of the law of man. There are different ways of formulating this idea but the real meaning is the same in all.

This distinction made possible the institutional state and the institutional church. To sin against God was treason of the deepest dye. The Decalogue formulated the laws of God. The sinners were sinners, and the righteous were righteous, because of their personal vices or personal virtues, and these vices and virtues were clearly defined and easily recognized. Down through the ages the practice of these concrete vices on the one hand and virtues on the other, made people bad or good. Good society felt an abhorrence of the society of the vicious.

We are now at another parting of the ways. The orthodox categories are no longer authority, but they are valued as forms. He who is faithful to the forms may be the worst of sinners against the substance, and yet go unwhipped of justice. Indeed he may be and often is a leader in state and church. He must not commit murder with a bludgeon, or break into your home and steal or rob in person. These are vulgar forms that drive the offender, no matter how high his station, from the society of the respecta-

ble. He must consort with like vulgar offenders against the criminal code. But he may murder children by labor in the factories of a corporation of which he is a part; or he may steal from his competitors by rebates; or he may murder or maim every year one in every twenty-six of the employees of the railroad his corporation owns, in order that the dividends may not be impaired, or he may sell gold-bricks on exchange in the form of inflated Amalgamated Copper mining stock, through some agent; or he may drown hundreds of children in a worn out tub of an excursion boat belonging to his corporation which has bought indemnity of the inspectors; he may commit any or all of these crimes against the Decalogue but because they are not "so nominated in the bond," and because the offender visits the widow and the fatherless in their affliction, or endows a university, or builds an orphan asylum, he is a model citizen and the idol of the best society.

This is not because society would not whip him with scorpions if he were seen to drown and murder in person these children, or steal from the till of his competitor, or kill or maim with his own hand one in twenty-six of the employees of his railroad every year. No, it is because it is a new form of the old crime which they have not yet come to recognize in its modern guise, and which has long passed under the name of business.

Must this thing go on? No! How can it be stopped? By turning on the light.

Attention is being called by writers on sociology to the difference between a man's acts which harm himself and those which harm others; between his personal vices and his social sins. His personal vices may and often do harm the narrow circle of family relations, but his sins against society may carry ruin to thousands. These sins have decorous names and the sinner may not be conscious of nor desire to inflict injury upon others. He is only ministering to his greed for power or for wealth. He demands a rebate from the railroad because of the large business he commands, and thereby he ruins his competitors who do not receive these rebates. The business world is honey-combed with such injustice and such crimes. The results are wholesale murder and robbery of inno-

cent victims with no punishment of the criminals. What is the remedy?

It is two-fold: First, the directors of every corporation must be held personally responsible for the sins of the corporation, and suffer the penalty imposed by the law upon individual criminals who "murder" and "steal." Their sins must be made abhorrent to the public mind by such public recognition of their heinous character. The word "rebate" and the phrase "sneak-thief" must both carry the same meaning.

Second, public education from kindergarten to post-graduate university study must set to work in earnest to make the modern Decalogue of old familiar sins under new names equally abhorred as when they stalk our streets labeled with the names of the centuries-old criminal code. They are the same old sins against God and man concealed under the new toggerly they wear.

### THE TEST OF EFFICIENCY IN SUPERVISION.

W. C. BAGLEY, STATE UNIVERSITY, CHAMPAIGN, ILL.

[An Address delivered at the Fifty-second Annual Meeting of the New York Association of School Commissioners and Superintendents, November 7, 1907.]

I know of no way in which I can better introduce my subject than to describe very briefly the work of the superintendent who first furnished me with an example of a definite and effective method of supervision. This man was a "long range" superintendent. It was impossible for him to visit his schools very frequently, and so he did the next best thing: He had the schools brought to him. When I first

saw him, he was poring over a pile of papers that had just come in from one of his schools. I soon discovered that these papers were arranged in sets, each set being made up of samples taken each week from the work of the pupils in the schools under his supervision. The papers of each pupil were arranged in chronological order, and, by looking through the set, he could note the growth that the pupil in question had made since the beginning of the term. Upon these papers, the superintendent recorded his judgment of the amount of improvement shown both in form and in content.

I was particularly impressed by the character of his criticisms. There was nothing vague or intangible about them. Every annotation was clear and definite. If penmanship happened to be the point at issue, he would note that the lines were too close together; that the letters did not have sufficient individuality; that the spaces between the words were not sufficiently wide; that indentation was inadequate; that the writing was cramped, showing that the pen had not been held properly; that the margin needed correction. If the papers were defective from the standpoint of language, the criticisms were equally clear and definite. One pupil had misspelled the same word in three successive papers. "Be sure that this word appears in the next spelling list," was the comment of the superintendent. Another pupil habitually used a bit of false syntax: "Place that upon the list of errors to be taken up and corrected." Still others were uncertain about paragraphing: "Devote a language lesson to the paragraph before the next written exercise." On the covers of each bundle of class papers he wrote directions and suggestions of a more general nature; for example: "Improvement is not sufficiently marked; try for better results next time;" or, "I note that the pupils draw rather than write; look out for free movement." Occasionally, too, there were words of well-merited praise: "I like the way in which your pupils have responded to their drill. This is good. Keep it up." And not infrequently suggestions were made as to content: "Tell this story in greater detail next time, and have it reproduced again;" or, "The form of these papers is good,

but the nature study is poor; don't sacrifice thought to form."

In similar fashion, the other written work was gone over and annotated. Every pupil in this system of schools had a sample of his written work examined each week by the superintendent. Every teacher knew just what her chief demanded in the way of results, and did her best to gain the results demanded. I am not taking the position that the results that were demanded represented the highest ideals of what the elementary school should accomplish. Good penmanship and good spelling and good language, in the light of contemporary educational thought, seem to be something like happiness—you get them in larger measure the less you think about getting them. But this possible objection aside, the superintendent in question had developed a system which kept him in very close touch with the work that was being done in widely separated schools. He told me further that, on the infrequent occasions when he could visit his classrooms, he gave most of his time and attention to the matters that could not be supervised at "long range." He found out how the pupils were improving in their reading, and especially in oral expression,—in its syntax, its freedom from errors of construction, its clearness and fluency. He listed the common errors, directing his teachers to take them up in a systematic manner and eradicate them,—and he did not fail to note at his next visit how much progress had been made. He noted the condition of the blackboard work, and kept a list of the improvements that he suggested. He tested for rapidity in arithmetical pro-

cesses, for the papers sent to his office gave him only an index of accuracy. He noted habits of personal cleanliness that were being developed or neglected. In fact, he had a long list of specific standards that he kept continually in mind, the progress toward which he constantly watched. And last, but by no means least, he carried with him wherever he went an atmosphere of breezy good nature and cheerfulness,—for he had mastered the first principle in the art of both supervision and teaching; he had learned that the best way to promote growth in either pupils or teachers is neither to let them do as they please nor to force them to do as you please, but to get them to please to do what you please to have them do.

I instance this superintendent as one type of efficiency in supervision. He was efficient, not because he had a system which scrutinized every least detail of his pupils' growth, but because that scrutiny really insured growth. He obtained the results that he desired, and he obtained uniformly good results from a large number of young, untrained teachers. We have all heard of the superintendent who boasted that he could tell by looking at his watch just what any pupil in any classroom was doing at just that moment. Surely here system was not lacking. But the boast did not strike the vital point. It is not what the pupil is doing that is fundamentally important, but what he is gaining from his activity or inactivity,—what he is gaining in the way of habits, in the way of knowledge, in the way of standards and ideals and prejudices, all of which are to govern his future conduct. My first superin-

tendent had the qualities of balance and perspective that enabled him to see both the woods and the trees. And let me add that he taught regularly in his own central high school, and that all of his supervision was accomplished after school hours and on Saturdays.

But my chief reason for choosing his work as a type is that it represents a successful effort to supervise that part of school work which is most difficult and irksome to supervise,—namely the formation of habits. Whatever one may think of his ideals of education, it still remains true that habit-building is the most important duty of the elementary school, and that the efficiency of habit-building can be tested in no other way than by the means that he employed,—namely the careful comparison of results at successive stages of the process.

The essence of a true habit is its purely automatic character. Reaction must follow upon stimulus instantaneously,—without thought, reflection, or judgment. We have not taught spelling efficiently until spelling is automatic,—until the correct form flows from the pen without the intervention of mind. The real test of the pupil's training in spelling is his ability to spell the word correctly when he is thinking, not about spelling, but about the content of the sentence that he is writing. Consequently the test of efficiency in spelling is not an examination in spelling—although this may be valuable as a means to an end—but rather the infrequency with which misspelled words appear in the composition work and letter-writing and other written work of the pupil. Similarly in lan-

guage and grammar, it is not sufficient to instruct in rules of syntax. This is but the initial process. Grammatical rules function effectively only when they function automatically. As long as one must think and judge and reflect upon the form of one's expression, the expression is necessarily awkward and inadequate. The same rule holds in respect of the fundamental processes of arithmetic. It holds in penmanship, in articulation and enunciation, in word-recognition, in moral conduct and good manners—in fact, in all of the basic work for which the elementary school must stand sponsor. And one source of danger in the newer methods of education lies in the tendency to overlook the importance of carrying habit-building processes through to a successful issue. The reaction against drill, against formal work of all sorts, is a healthful reaction in many ways. It bids fair to break up the mechanical lockstep of the elementary grades, and to introduce some welcome life, and vigor, and wholesomeness. But it will sadly defeat its own purpose if it disparages the necessity of habit-building as the basic activity of early education.

*A New Conception of Formal Work.*

What we need, now that we have got away from the lock-step, now that we are happily emancipated from the meaningless thralldom of mechanical repetition and the worship of drill for its own sake,—what we need now is not less drill, but better drill. And this, it seems to me, will be the net result of the recent reforms in elementary education. In our first enthusiasm, we threw away the spelling-book, *poked fun* at the multiplication tables,

decried basal reading, and relieved ourselves of much wit and sarcasm at the expense of formal grammar. But now we are swinging back to the formal work, but with a new conception of its nature and a more adequate recognition of its purpose. And in the wake of this newer conception, we are learning that its drudgery can be lightened and its efficiency heightened by the introduction of a richer content that shall provide a greater variety in the repetitions, insure an adequate motive for effort, and relieve the dead monotony that rendered the older methods so futile. I look forward to the time when to be an efficient drill-master in this newer sense of the term will be to have reached one of the pinnacles of professional skill.

But there is another side of teaching that must be supervised. Although habit is responsible for nine-tenths of conduct, the remaining tenth must not be neglected. In situations where habit is not adequate to adjustment, judgment and reflection must come to the rescue—or should come to the rescue. This means that, instead of acting without thought, as in the case of habit, one analyzes the situation and tries to solve it by the application of some fact or principle that has been gained either from one's own experience or from the experience of others. This is the field in which knowledge comes to its own; and a very important task of education is to fix in the pupils' minds a number of facts and principles that will be available for application to the situations of later life.

How, then, is the efficiency of instruction (as distinguished from training or habit-building) to be tested?

Needless to say, an adequate test is impossible from the very nature of the situation. The efficiency of imparting knowledge can be tested only by the effect that this knowledge has upon later conduct; and this, it will be agreed, cannot be accurately determined until the pupil has left the school and is face to face with the problems of real life.

In practice, however, we adopt a more or less effective substitute for the real test,—the substitute called the examination. We all know that the ultimate purpose of instruction is not primarily to enable pupils successfully to pass examinations. And yet as long as we teach as though this were the main purpose we might as well believe it to be. Now the examination can be made a very valuable test of the efficiency of instruction if its limitations are fully recognized and if it does not obscure the true purpose of instruction. And if we remember that the true purpose is to impart facts in such a manner that they may not only “stick” in the pupil’s mind, but that they may also be amendable to recall and practical application, and if we set our examination questions with some reference to this requirement, then I believe that we shall find the examination a dependable test.

One important point is apt to be overlooked in the consideration of examinations,—the fact, namely, that the form and content of the questions have a very powerful influence in determining the content and methods of instruction. Is it not pertinent then to inquire whether examination questions cannot be stated in such a way as

radically to improve instruction rather than to encourage, as is often the case, methods that are pedagogically unsound? Granting that it is well for the child to memorize verbatim certain unrelated facts—even to memorize some facts that have no possible bearing upon his life,—granting that this is valuable (and I think that a little of it is), is it necessary that an entire year or half year be given over almost entirely to “cramming up” on old questions? Would it not be possible to frame examination questions in such a way that the “cramming” process would be practically valueless? What the pupil should get from geography, for instance, is not only a knowledge of geographical facts, but also, and more fundamentally, the power to see the relation of these facts to his own life,—in other words, the ability to apply his knowledge to the improvement of adjustment. Now this power is very closely associated with the ability to grasp fundamental principles,—to see the relations of cause and effect working below the surface of diverse phenomena. Geography, to be practical, must impress not only the fact, but also the principle that rationalizes or explains the fact. It must emphasize the “why” as well as the “what.” For example: it is well for the pupil to know that New York is the largest city in the United States; it is better that he should know why New York has become the largest city in the United States. It is well to know that South America extends very much farther to the East than North America, but it is better to know that this fact has had an import-

ant bearing in determining the commercial relations that exist between South America and Europe. Questions that have reference to these larger relations of cause and effect can be so framed that no amount of "cramming" will alone insure correct answers. They can be so framed that the pupil will be forced to do some thinking for himself,—will be forced to solve an imaginary situation in much the same manner that he would solve a real situation. And examination questions of this type would react beneficially upon the methods of instruction. They would tend to place a premium upon that type of instruction that develops initiative in solving problems instead of encouraging the memoriter methods that tend to crush whatever germs of initiative the pupil may possess. This does not mean that the memoriter work should be excluded. A solid basis of fact is essential to the mastery of principles. Personally I believe that the work of the intermediate grades should be planned to give the pupil this factual basis. This would leave the upper grades free for the more rational work. In any case, I believe that the efficiency of examinations can be greatly increased by giving one or two questions that must be answered by a reasoning process for every question that can be answered by verbal memory alone.

#### *The Emotional Effect of Training.*

Thus far it seems clear that an absolute standard is available for testing the efficiency of training or habit-building, and that a fairly accurate standard may be developed for testing the efficiency of instruction. Both *training* and instruction, however, are

subject to the modifying influence of a third factor of which too little account has hitherto been taken in educational discussions. Training gives habits, and yet a certain sort of training may not only result in a certain type of habit, but it may also result in the development of something which will quite negate the habit that has been developed. In the process of developing habits of neatness, for example, one may employ methods that result in prejudicing the child against neatness as a general virtue. In this event, although the little specific habits of neatness may function in the situation in which they have been developed, the prejudice will effectually prevent their extension to other fields. In other words, the general emotional effect of training must be considered as well as the specific results of the training. The same stricture applies with equal force to instruction. Instruction imparts knowledge, but if a man knows and fails to feel, his knowledge is a useless luxury and has little influence upon his conduct.

This factor that controls conduct when habit fails,—this factor that may even negate an otherwise efficient habit,—is the great indeterminate in the work of teaching. To know that one has trained an effective habit or imparted a practical principle is one thing; to know that in doing this, one has not engendered in the pupil's mind a prejudice against the very thing taught is quite another matter.

That function of teaching which is concerned with the development of these intangible forces may be termed "inspiration," and it is the lack of an adequate test for the efficiency of in-



tion that makes the task of supervision so difficult and the results so unsatisfactory. Nevertheless, here the outlook is not entirely pessimistic. One may be tolerably certain of at least two things. In the first place, the great "emotionalized prejudice" that must come predominantly from school influences are the love of work, the love of work, respect for law and order, and a spirit of coöperation. These factors undoubtedly have their influence in specific habits of honesty, industry, obedience, and regard for the rights and feelings of others; and these habits can be developed and learned just as thoroughly and just as completely as habits of good spelling and correct syntax. Without the solid foundation of habit, ideals and prejudices are of but little service. The one conclusion must be taken that the methods of training do not defeat their own

purpose by engendering prejudices and ideals that negate the habits. It is here that the personality of the teacher becomes the all-important factor, and the task of the supervisor is to determine whether the influence of the personality is good or evil. Most supervisors come to judge of this influence by an undefined factor that is best termed the "spirit of the classroom;" and the second hopeful feature of the task of supervision in respect of inspiration is that this "spirit" is an extremely contagious and pervasive thing. In other words, the principal or the superintendent can dominate every classroom under his supervision, almost without regard to the limitations of the individual teachers. Typical schools in every city system bear compelling testimony to this fact. The principal is the school.

WHY NEED ENGLISH COMPOSITION BE A BUGBEAR?

BY MARGARET H. J. LAMPE.

IV.

TO DEVELOP A MOTIVE FOR WRITING.

(Continued.)

In the May number an attempt was made to show how interest in composition was aroused by leading a class to that training in all branches of letter-writing is practical preparation for any station. We now take up another purpose that can be made to appeal strongly to the sense of any age—that of giving joy or pleasure to others. When Jennie was taken far away from home to spend many weary

weeks among strangers in a large hospital, a group of her sympathizing classmates asked Miss N., the English teacher, if she couldn't think of something they could do to cheer their young friend.

"There doesn't seem to be a thing that she could use while she's lying on her back and they won't even let such very sick patients have flowers in their rooms, so what can we do?" said Maud.

"Yes, and we're all so sorry for her, but much good that'll do her when she can't know it. If it was me, I'd just

die of the blues and I don't believe she *can* get well off there away from everybody," added impulsive Carrie.

"You might write a few lines to let her know you are thinking of her," suggested the teacher.

"Why, of course! How stupid of us not to think of that. Come on girls, let's begin right away and all send her a good, long letter tonight," said Carrie.

"Wait a minute," urged Miss N., "that would certainly relieve your feelings, but we ought always first to put ourselves in the place of the person to whom we want to do a kindness."

"Oh, I see what you mean," exclaimed Amy, "if we all write today, she'd get such a lot of letters tomorrow that she'd be tired to death reading them, as weak as she is, and then maybe she wouldn't get any more for a week or two because we'd have to wait for something to happen before we could write again. I believe if I were in her place, I'd rather have them sprinkled along."

"That's so," said May, "let Carrie write today and Amy tomorrow and so on, one every day. And don't you think, Miss N., that while she is so very sick the letters ought to be short, anyway?"

"Yes, and they ought to be bright and cheerful and not tell unpleasant things," suggested Maude.

"Well, but they shouldn't tell too much of any good times we have without her or she'll get homesick," said Carrie.

The final result of the discussion was that for a long time every morning some pupil came to Miss N. with the draft of a letter to be criticised as

to its probable effect on the spirits of the young patient.

In passing it may be remarked that no better opportunity for training toward unselfishness can be found than in a wisely planned course in letter-writing. Children are keen critics and with very little guidance will discover for themselves from specimens read aloud in class, that the really good letter-writer must of necessity think of his correspondent's interests, affairs, tastes and wishes before he does of his own.

The third and fourth grade pupils of Miss H. had their sympathies so much aroused by her description of a visit paid during the Christmas vacation to a city hospital for crippled children that they decided to make valentines for all in the institution. The teacher furnished envelopes and secured from the superintendent a list of the names of all the little cripples. Each pupil addressed two envelopes, then placed a valentine made in the Drawing class and a little letter written as a language lesson in each.

It is doubtful which set of children was made happier by the results, but certainly the practical benefits came to those who did the work. A plan was later formed to send a set of penny pictures to the hospital at some other time and with each picture its "story" written by some member of the class. This lent a very real interest to work in composition. Some time afterward in a letter from the superintendent to the teacher, were some half dozen little notes of thanks sent by those of the little patients able to write. Naturally they were of great interest to the pupils.

The above will very likely suggest to the ingenious teacher dozens of ways by which a motive for writing may be inspired. For the benefit of those not gifted with originality in planning, it may be stated that there is little danger of the beneficent work tried by Miss H. being overdone since there are in this country no less than sixty thousand cripple children, nearly all of them among the very poor.

It is quite possible, however, to find a worthy and inspiring purpose in the school itself. Recently there came under my notice some work showing fine results of the development of a social or altruistic motive for writing. A class of fifth grade pupils were asked by their teacher last Fall whether they would like to write Christmas stories for the purpose of entertaining the children from the Primary room. Her suggestion was received with delight and it was decided after an animated discussion that, though the fifth graders themselves had long since passed the age of credulity, the stories should contain nothing likely to disturb the happy faith of "the little tots" in Santa Claus and further that neither thought nor language beyond the comprehension of the prospective audience should be employed.

The enthusiastic industry of the class was a joy to the heart of their teacher who, on her part, was by no means idle. She made lists of mistakes in sentence structure, spelling and punctuation found in the first drafts of the stories. These, though not given directly to the pupils, were made the basis of several language lessons during which the pupils eagerly made original discoveries of their

own mistakes and corrected them carefully when copying their productions. Finally, not long before Christmas, the children of the Primary room were invited into the Fifth room one afternoon to hear the stories read aloud to them by the proud young authors. The teachers present said it was hard to tell which class was more excited or happy. Many of the little ones were so carried away by the spirit of the occasion that they frequently wanted to interrupt proceedings in order to narrate similar incidents from their own experience. The fact that the interest of the little guests was held throughout the reading of all thirty-seven stories speaks for itself.

I had the pleasure of examining them all and by the courtesy of the teacher have been allowed to select a few for the perusal of my readers. We decided not to publish the most interesting, as it seemed not quite certain whether or not their superiority was due to suggestions made in the children's homes. The following, however, seem not only undoubtedly original but are a fair sample of the quality of about twenty-five of the papers. Three were much better than these and eight or nine were not nearly so good. A careful study of these stories will repay almost any language teacher. Among other things, they show clearly the desirability of requiring from children work in composition that is well within their vocabulary limit.

#### WHAT TUCKER GOT.

Once there were some children who wrote their letters to Santa. One named Tucker wrote for a toy donkey. That night he hung up his stocking.

In the morning he looked but his toy donkey was not there. Then he began to cry but his father said, "What are you crying for on Christmas morning? Look outside and you will find one Santa could not bring into the house."

He looked and there was a real donkey that he could ride.

#### JOHNNY'S CHRISTMAS.

One Christmas night when I was little I waited and waited for an hour or more but Santa did not come. So I went to bed. When I got up in the morning I found a note in the toe of my stocking. I read it and this is what it said: "I would not come while you stayed up."

#### BESSIE'S LETTER TO SANTA CLAUS.

Buffalo, N. Y., December 23, 1906.

DEAR SANTA CLAUS:—I thought I would write and tell you what I want for Christmas. I want a pair of roller skates and a doll and I don't know what else because I always get candy and it would not be of any use to ask for that. I don't care so much for myself as I do for my baby sister. Her name is Elizabeth May. She is five months and three weeks old. She has two teeth right in front and she can sit alone. Fill her stocking cram full and even if mine is half full and it seems as if she says, "I want my stocking full of tandy," she goes "Goo, goo, goo."

I will close for now.

Your loving

BESSIE.

#### THE JOURNEY OF SANTA CLAUS.

I saw Santa Claus come down the chimney and he scared me so I put my

head under the cover. He came down the chimney with his face all covered with soot which he got off the chimney. Mamma told me to go to bed and go to sleep but I wanted to see what Santa Claus looked like and I thought I would stay awake. When Santa Claus came down the chimney with all of the candies and presents for the other children he said to me: "You did not mind your mother like the other children did and you shall not have any presents," and he told me to go and get back in my bed like the other children are doing and he said: "If I have any candy or presents left I may give you some." So when Santa said that I went and got back in my bed. When I woke Christmas morning my stocking was full of candy and presents. I was so happy that I did not know what to do. I said Santa Claus was just playing with me. I knew he would bring me some candy and presents. That is the way he makes little boys be good when they do not mind their mamma on Christmas. Then after that they mind their mother and be good boys.

#### CHRISTMAS EVE.

Christmas Eve will soon be here;

It is always full of cheer.

Hang our stockings in a row

Sure no hole is in the toe.

I want a teddy bear you know

But mama said "They're all for show."

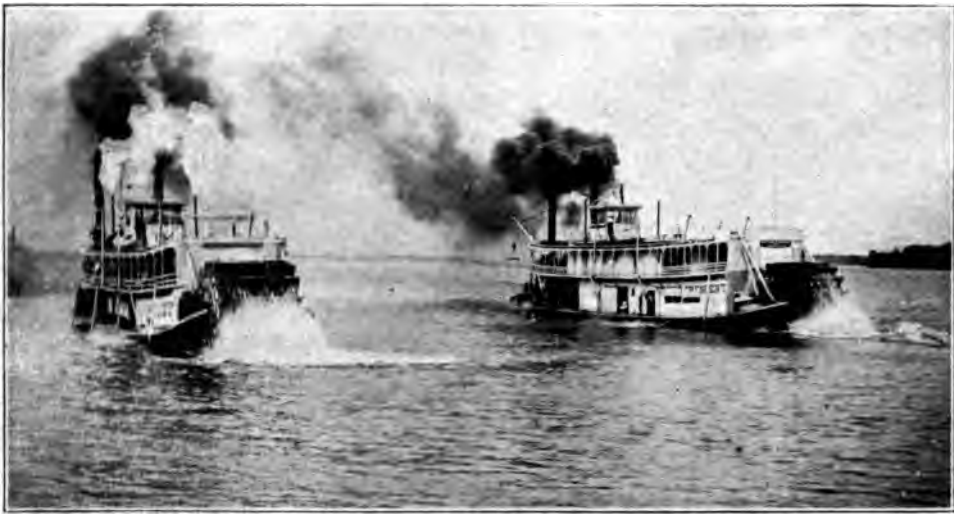
"Well then I want a doll," I said.

Mamma laughed and turned her head.

I got them both and wasn't I glad!

I said I never would be bad.

	<h2 style="margin: 0;">THE OUT OF DOORS</h2> <p style="margin: 0;">Its Life, Its Wonders and Beauties of Form. Its Call to Industry and to Sports.</p>	
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*Photo by F. M. Fultz.*

A STEAMBOAT RACE ON THE MISSISSIPPI.

### THE UPPER MISSISSIPPI REGION.\*

BY F. M. FULTZ, BURLINGTON, IOWA.

#### *Steamboat Trip from St. Louis to St. Paul.*

Steamboats ply on the Mississippi as far north as St. Paul. About ten miles above the landing at St. Paul occur the Falls of St. Anthony, around which is built the city of Minneapolis. By deepening the channel along this ten-mile stretch, steamboats could go as far as that city. This improvement, which has been frequently talked of but never undertaken, would make Minneapolis the northern terminus, instead of St. Paul. On account of the Falls of St. Anthony, steamboats could go no further north.

There are some steamboats on the

Mississippi above Minneapolis, but they are small and of lighter draft. For the most part they are engaged in rafting.

Although steamboats can go from St. Paul to the Gulf of Mexico, there are none which regularly make this trip. St. Louis is the division point between the traffic on the upper river and the lower river. Above St. Louis, during a time of low water, steamboats must not have a draft much over three feet, while on the lower river they may draw six feet.

There are steamboats which regularly make the round trip between St. Louis and St. Paul about once in ten

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days for four or five months of the year, running until along late in September or early in October. In order to keep the channel of sufficient depth, the government has built hundreds of wing dams extending from the shores and islands far out into the stream. These dams confine the current to a certain place and the constant scouring keeps the channel open. The sand thus scoured out is thrown into the stiller water behind the dams, where it settles. During flood time more sand and silt lodges there, and by and by the deposit is built up to the top of the dam. In many places there are a number of the wing dams, one after another, a quarter of a mile or so apart and each extending outward from the shore that distance or farther. The shore line is thus extended far out into the river and the channel is confined more permanently to one place.

But with all the work the government is doing to keep the channel deep enough, frequently, at the time of low water during August and September, steamboats find difficulty in making the passage, on account of the sand-bars which form and extend across the river where the current is not very swift. When the water is falling very rapidly, one of these bars may form in a single day. During extreme low water it takes a skillful pilot to guide the steamboat, and he must be constantly studying the changes that are taking place in the channel.

Let us take a trip from St. Louis to St. Paul by one of the regular packets. We find the river wandering southward in a valley several miles in width,

running now in the middle, now on one side, and again striking diagonally across. Where it runs close under the bluff bordering the valley, there are nearly always perpendicular rock cliffs, as at Hannibal, Mo., Quincy, Ill., and Burlington, Iowa. In such cases the other bluff will be several miles away, with a somewhat gradual slope, and covered with a mantle of soil. On the lowland between there is a forest of elm, soft maple, ash, cottonwood, sycamore, and other trees of lowland growth. Where the river runs midway of the valley both shores are lined with the lowland forest, and the bluffs present but few bold rock exposures. The higher sand-bars and the recently-made land are covered with a dense growth of willows.

If we make the trip as early as May or June we shall probably see the lowlands flooded and the river quite generally several miles in width. In some places at the time of the highest flood the river extends from bluff to bluff. Then it is truly a majestic stream. At such a time the water is heavily charged with silt which is brought down from the uplands by tributary streams. The water flowing less swiftly over the submerged lowlands,



*Photo by F. M. Fulls.*

**FARM YARD ON THE MISSISSIPPI FLOOD PLAIN DURING EXTREMELY HIGH WATER.**

the silt is constantly deposited. Thus the lowlands are being continually built up, and in the course of time there are places that are out of reach of any ordinary flood. As previously mentioned, this lowland soil is exceedingly rich, and we notice in a few places where there is a considerable area of it that high embankments, or levees, have been built to keep out the floods. There is an extensive levee just below Quincy on the Illinois side, and another, twenty-five miles long, above Burlington on the Iowa side.

We have scarcely left the wharf at St. Louis before our boat is passing under the great Eads bridge that spans the river between St. Louis and East St. Louis in Illinois. There is an immense traffic over the great bridge, which has two floors, one for railways and the other for street cars, wagons and pedestrians. Two miles further up stream is the Merchants' bridge, not so great a structure as the Eads bridge, but still one over which there is a large amount of traffic.

A couple of hours' steaming takes us past the mouth of the Missouri. Where its water unites with that of the

Mississippi we notice the difference in color. Excepting during the time of low water, the Missouri carries much more silt than the Mississippi and as a result its flood is so thick and dark with mud that a sharp line seems to separate it from the water of the Mississippi, and they flow on for many miles before they mingle.

The combined flood plain of the Mississippi and Missouri at their junction is many miles wide and contains thousands of acres of the richest land in the state of Missouri. The region is given over largely to the raising of corn and wheat. The soil, however, is especially adapted to gardening and that industry is on the increase. If we were coming down the river in the late summer, our boat might possibly stop somewhere along the bank and take on a cargo of wheat which had just been threshed in the nearby fields. The grain is usually in two-bushel sacks which are slid down from the high bank on a long chute to the lower deck, where they are piled up in long rows.

A short distance above the mouth of the Missouri river we pass Alton, Ill. Near the city there are high lime-



*Photo by W. L. Hanson.*

THE LIMESTONE BLUFF NEAR ALTON, ILL.

stone cliffs, striking in their appearance on account of the regularity with which they have broken away along the jointings, leaving a great wall with regular offsets. The river runs close to the base of this high cliff. A couple of hours steaming from Alton brings us to the mouth of the Illinois river which adds a large volume of water to the Mississippi. Proceeding northward, a number of towns of considerable importance are passed on the Missouri side.

Three or four miles below Hannibal there are immense cement works. Just in the southern edge of the town itself we see the high cliff known as "Lover's Leap," one of the highest points along the river between St. Louis and Dubuque. Hannibal and vicinity are interesting on account of being the region where Mark Twain's well known stories of Tom Sawyer and Huckleberry Finn were laid. Twenty miles above Hannibal is Quincy, Ill., where again there are high rocky bluffs.

At all the towns so far mentioned there are railway bridges across the Mississippi, as there are at many of the

towns which lie further up. Nearly all these bridges have draws which swing on a central pivot to permit the steamboats passing up and down the river. Some thirty miles above Quincy on the Illinois shore is Warsaw, one of the oldest towns of western Illinois. It also sets on a high rocky bluff. Nearly opposite Warsaw the Des Moines river comes in from the northwest.

Two or three miles above the Forks of the Des Moines and Mississippi is Keokuk, Ia., which is situated at the foot of the lower rapids of the Mississippi. These rapids extend for nearly ten miles, and during low water steamboats must use the canal, which is built on the Iowa side, to pass around them. The valley of the river is here not more than three-quarters of a mile wide and is bordered by high rocky walls which makes this stretch of the river a true gorge. Preparations are now being made to erect a dam at the lower end of the rapids which will furnish water power of much greater capacity than that now being used at Niagara Falls. There are three locks in the canal leading around the rapids. These are large



*Photo by Anschutz.*

**THE MIDDLE LOCK IN THE CANAL AROUND THE LOWER RAPIDS OF THE MISSISSIPPI.**

The steamboat has entered the lock from the lower end. The lower gates are just closing, the one on the right showing in the picture. The upper gates are still closed. As soon as the lower gates are closed, water will be let into the lock and when the water in the lock is on a level with that above, the upper gates will open and the steamboat can pass on up. Note the river on the right distance.



enough to permit log and lumber rafts to be taken through in sections. One of the locks is at the lower end of the canal, one near the middle and the other at the upper end, and they are known as the Lower, Middle and Upper Locks.

Just above the rapids is Nauvoo, Ill., noted as being the seat of the Mormon Church from 1839 to 1847. There remains in the town very little of what belonged to the Mormons. The fine temple they built was long ago torn down and the stones used in building other structures. Nauvoo stands on a commanding hill and in its midst there is a large Catholic church with tall spire which is easily seen for ten miles up the river. The hills about Nauvoo are covered with vineyards.

Ten miles further up the river we pass Ft. Madison, the earliest of the government posts established in the region now occupied by Iowa. Just

below Ft. Madison, and also a few miles above the town on the Iowa side, there are extensive flood plains which for the most part lie above present high water. The sandy and alluvial soil of these flood plains furnish fields for the cultivation of melons, sweet potatoes and vegetables of all kinds.

Forty miles north of Keokuk we pass Burlington, the first capital of the territory of Iowa. In the early days of settlement this place was known as "Flint Hills" on account of the white deposits of flint which everywhere show along the face of the high rocky cliffs.

At Burlington the channel of the river is on the west side and for some distance below the city it flows close under a high rocky bluff. The business part of the city is built on the floor of a little valley that comes in from the west. As we approach the city from the south along the base of the high



*Photo by F. M. Fulls.* DOUBLE TRACK RAILWAY BRIDGE OF THE C. B. & Q. R. R., OVER THE MISSISSIPPI AT BURLINGTON, IA., SHOWING THE DRAW OPEN AND STEAMBOAT PASSING THROUGH. The flood plain on the Illinois side is seven or eight miles wide.

rocky bluff already spoken of, we pass through the draw of the double-tracked bridge of the C. B. & Q. Railway. Just above the bridge is one of the few remaining saw mills along the course of the Upper Mississippi. Extending along the shore for some distance above the mill is the boom, full of logs which have been brought from the pineries. Half a mile from the bridge we steam up to the levee, which is similar to those of the other towns we have passed further south. The levee is paved with stone blocks from above the point of high water down to low water mark, and even extending out some distance further. The slope is gradual, so that heavy loads may be hauled up from the barges and boats at the landing and from the warehouses which are built on high foundations near where the edge of the river is at the time of low water.

We find at the wharfs the smaller packets which are engaged in trade between local points. There are many of

these smaller steamboats engaged in local trade between points on the upper river. At Burlington we find some which have Davenport as their northern terminus and others which go as far south as Keokuk. When three or four of these boats are at the levee at the same time, a lively scene is presented in the unloading and loading of freight, and the passing to and fro of passengers over the gang planks. There is likely to be something of a crowd at the levee to watch the arrival and departure of the steamers. While steamboat racing is not carried on to the extent it was in the earlier years of the river traffic, yet occasionally one sees a friendly strife of this character.

In this vicinity we see many clam fishers at work. For the most part they use small flat-bottomed boats and fish for the clams with dredges of various descriptions. The clams are gathered for the shells which are used in the making of pearl buttons.

Just above Burlington the flood



*Photo by Ernest Hanson.*

**LEVEE AT BURLINGTON, IA.**

Note the "Pulling" of lumber going on. These lumber rafts have been floated down the river from the saw mills near the pineries in Minnesota and Wisconsin.

plain of the Mississippi is wider than we shall see it again at any point further north. For some distance the river runs about midway of the valley, leaving four or five miles of flood plain on either side. The river itself is cut up into many channels, forming innumerable islands, which when viewed from the high bluff at Burlington, presents a picturesque and pleasing scene. About fifty miles north of Burlington, we come to Muscatine. Just below the city there is an old flood plain known as Muscatine Island. Part of it above reach of high water, and the balance of it is protected by a levee. The place is famous for its watermelons and sweet potatoes. Muscatine was formerly a lumber center, there being four large mills in operation; but the decline of the business has made it necessary to close them all permanently. The principal industry of the town is the making of pearl buttons.



*Photo by Harry E. Wood.*

ROUSTABOUTS LOADING FREIGHT.

Twenty-five miles further up the river are situated the Tri-Cities, Davenport, Ia., and Rock Island and Mo-

line, Ill. There are nearly 100,000 people in the three cities. Here also is the island of Rock Island, which is owned by the national government and upon which is situated the Rock Island U. S. Arsenal, one of the largest of the government arsenals. Between the Island and the Iowa shore are the Upper Rapids of the Mississippi which also extend several miles above the upper end of the island. These rapids are not so shallow nor so swift as the Lower Rapids at Keokuk, and by blasting out the rock bottom, a channel has been made deep enough for the passage of steamboats. However, special pilots are required to take boats up and down the rapids.

A large force of skilled mechanics are constantly employed in the various shops of the arsenal and great quantities of rifles and army supplies of various kinds are turned out.

On the island is situated the house of Colonel Geo. Davenport, built in 1833. It was in this house that he was murdered July 4, 1845. The house is kept in repair, although not occupied. From the deck of the steamboat, just as we pass through the draw of the big bridge connecting the island with Davenport, we may see the old Davenport house. It is situated close to the bank of the river and is not hidden by many trees.

Just below Rock Island the Rock river empties into the Mississippi. It occupies a valley much too large to have been formed by so small a river, and which it is believed was in the distant past the bed of the Mississippi. The alluvial soil in this Rock river valley is very rich and at one time was the favorite corn field of the Sacs and

Foxes, the Indians who were occupying this region when the white men came. The region on both sides of the river for a hundred miles both north and south of Rock Island was the particular hunting ground of the Sacs and Foxes and it was to keep possession of this that Chief Black Hawk fought in the conflict known as the Black Hawk War.

After passing Davenport, the valley of the river is materially narrower and there are no great flood plains, such as those near Quincy and Burlington.

As we proceed northward we pass a number of towns of importance: Clinton, Ia., at one time one of the greatest lumber centers on the Upper Mississippi; Dubuque, Ia., named after Julian Dubuque, who mined lead there as early as 1788; LaCrosse, Wis.; Winona and Red Wing, Minnesota, and other towns of lesser size.

About half way between Prairie du Chien, in the southwest corner of Wisconsin, and LaCrosse, some fifty miles further north, on the east bank of the river, is the scene of the battle of Bad Axe. It is here that Black Hawk met his final defeat. The battle took its name from the river of Bad Axe, a small stream which joins the Mississippi at this point.

In our trip up the river, we notice that wherever tributary streams come in, the valleys are cut down very nearly to the level of the river valley and that many of the principal cities are located at such points, the business blocks being on the low ground, and the residences occupying the surrounding hills where there are commanding views of the river.



*Photo by W. W. Atwood.*  
ROCK CHIMNEYS NEAR THE MISSISSIPPI  
IN THE DRIFTLESS AREA OF WISCONSIN.

Near the north boundary of Iowa the bluffs rise higher, while the valley grows much narrower and looks like a deep trough. This is in the Driftless Area and we notice, especially on the Wisconsin side, the rock pinnacles and towers which show that the glacier never moved over these hills. Many of the rocks are sandstone, (frequently stained with a variety of colors), that erode easily, and which furnish much sand for the river to carry southward. There is considerable limestone, too, some of which is weathered and sculptured into grotesque forms.

A short distance further north, we pass through Lake Pepin, which is simply a portion of the Mississippi river twenty miles long and two to four miles wide, where the current is slack and the water deep. The lake is caused by the Chippewa river which flows into the Mississippi on the Wisconsin side. The detritus carried down by the Chippewa has so silted



*Photo by Natchtrieb.*

VIEW ON LAKE PEPIN

Note that the river fills the valley from bluff to bluff.

up the channel of the Mississippi that its bed has been raised many feet, thus damming back the water and forming Lake Pepin. The lake occupies the full width of the valley, extending to the bluff on either side. It is a dangerous stretch of water for steamboats during wind storms.

The head of navigation is at St. Paul. If we wish to see the river further north, we may take a small excursion boat as far as the mouth of Minnehaha Creek, which is about four miles above St. Paul. A short distance before Minnehaha Creek is reached, we pass Ft. Snelling, which is on the west bank of the river and on a high bluff. From Minneapolis to Ft. Snelling, a distance of about seven miles, the Mississippi flows through a deep, narrow gorge which has been cut since the great glacier occupied this region. The gorge begins at the Falls of St. Anthony and ends at Ft. Snelling. Its formation was comparatively easy on account of the hard limestone layers at

the top being underlaid by the easily eroded St. Peter's sandstone. At one time the Falls of St. Anthony were near where Ft. Snelling now is. After the Glacial Period, the river, some eight miles further north, found its valley filled with drift and was forced to take a new course. It flowed across the upland and dropped for nearly 100 feet into its old valley. The falling water rapidly cut away the soft sandstones at the base, and the limestone layers at the top, left unsupported, fell away in great masses. The Falls of St. Anthony are noticeably further up the river than they were when first seen by white men in 1680.

Minnehaha creek has likewise cut back a narrower gorge from the Mississippi to the distance of nearly half a mile to where Minnehaha Falls now are. The soft St. Peter's sandstone shows along the walls of Minnehaha gorge, and before the place was made a public park and protected from vandalism, tourists were accustomed to



*Photo by Harry E. Wood.*  
MINNEHAHA FALLS.

dig out sand of various colors from the sides of the gorge which they filled into bottles so as to make pictures or other pleasing effects with variegated bands.

St. Paul is located where it is, because in the earlier days of settlement the head of navigation on the Mississippi was a much more important thing than a great water power. But as soon as the country was settled up and mills had to be built, people began to make use of the great water power of the Falls of St. Anthony, and on account of the manufacturing the water power made possible, the city of Minneapolis, which grew up around it, soon surpassed St. Paul in size and importance.

The flour mills in Minneapolis are the most extensive in the world, and are largely driven by the power furnished by the Falls. The place is also one of the chief lumbering points of the north. Above the Falls there are extensive log booms, where the logs floated down the river from the forests surrounding its headwaters are col-

lected. A mile or so below the Falls there are several large saw-mills, at each of which there is a smaller boom from which the logs are taken up long enclines into the mill. The logs cannot be brought over the Falls in rafts, but are floated singly through plank chutes. Beside the logs used at the Minneapolis mills there are thousands of others sent down the chutes. These float through the gorge and are collected into booms near Ft. Snelling, where they are sorted and made into rafts.

The whole face of St. Anthony Falls has been covered with a frame of heavy timbers and planked over in order to prevent any further wear of the rocks by the water. This has been done to preserve the water power.

The scenery around St. Paul and Minneapolis is interesting and furnishes several days' pleasant and profitable sight-seeing. The Falls and Gorge of Minnehaha are about midway between the two cities. Everyone, too, should see the fine view of the Mississippi's gorge which may be had from the high bridge at Ft. Snelling. Also, from this bridge one may watch the sorting of logs in the river below. Ft. Snelling itself is a point of interest, although no longer of the importance it was when the country was new and the peace and security of the region depended upon the soldiers who were stationed there.

There are numerous lakes in the region, a number of which are within the city limits. Around some of them city parks have been established and beautiful driveways constructed. Lake Harriet is one of these. But the lake of special charm and interest is Minne-

tonka, situated about twenty miles west of Minneapolis. This is one of the most famous northern summer resorts and thousands of people from further south spend some portion of the hot summer months around its shores.

### THE RURAL SCHOOL GARDEN. WHAT SHALL IT BE?

R. W. CLOTHIER, STATE NORMAL, CAPE GIRARDEAU, MO.

Much has been said about the school garden as a factor in teaching elementary agriculture. Some have even gone far enough to say that the work done in the garden is the only valuable instruction in the subject that can be given to children. Such persons evidently form their opinions from observation of the school garden developed so well in some of our best city schools, and are not very familiar with the conditions of country schools and country school children. There is no question but that gardening in the city is to be the nucleus around which all instruction in agriculture must be centered, but when applied to the country schools it is by no means self-evident that this is the only way or even the best way of presenting the subject. Using the word gardening in the sense of growing vegetables, the first and greatest objection to making gardening the chief consideration in the country school is the fact that the great majority of the schools are not in session at a time when vegetables can be grown successfully. This of itself will cut out the vegetable garden as a part of the country school teacher's equipment, but I believe it can be shown that this is no great loss to him. Farmers almost invariably have a fairly good family garden and while they do not farm it very intensively, land is much cheaper with them than labor and they would not adopt the intensive methods that would necessarily have to be used in a school garden. In this garden the farmer's boy learns his first lessons in labor and he begins them as soon as, or before he enters school. He is pretty familiar with gardening operations before he has been long in school and he knows quite well what a good garden is. It will be very difficult for him to come from a fine garden at home with very much enthusiasm to a small patch on the school grounds exposed to the depredations of uninterested or malicious schoolmates or the occasional passer-by. If he wants a garden of his own he can have it at home for the asking, where conditions are such as to insure success, but if he is required to grow a garden on the school ground against adverse conditions, he will be pretty sure to rebel very effectively against the task. Then too the country children who are old enough to understand instruction in agriculture are beginning to take great interest in the larger operations on the farm. They are looking forward to the time when they can plow or run the mowing machine. They are interested in the growing and feeding of stock, the harvesting of the wheat crop, the growing of corn; and the wise teacher will give instruction in the

fundamental principles underlying the large interests where the enthusiasm and hopes of the children lie, rather than to hold them down to vegetable gardening. Every principle then presented may be seen in operation on the home farm and the child's natural desire to know the why of things will keep up his interest in the work, especially if once in a while he can carry home to his parents information that is new to them but which they recognize at once as valuable. The vegetable garden may be a success where school is held during the summer months and the children are small, but in the average rural school it is almost certain to be a failure.

What then shall the country school garden be? First of all a place for examination and illustration regardless of the value or quantity of the things produced. We may grow vegetables without having a vegetable garden and learn from them many interesting and profitable things not known before. A cabbage or a turnip bearing seed would not fail to interest most farmer's children. They would also be interested in a vegetable from which oyster soup could be made if they had never seen one before. These examples will suggest other profitable uses to make of vegetables.

A grass garden containing a large variety of cultivated grasses and forage crops would not only be instructive to the children but would be a valuable object lesson to the whole community. New varieties of fruit may be purchased and set out in the garden where they may be tested for the whole school district. These would save many dollars now wasted annually by

farmers who buy novelties that are loudly advertised by the traveling agent but which usually prove to be worthless. The setting of such trees, vines, shrubs and bush fruits as might be purchased would afford valuable lessons to the children, as would their subsequent care, training, pruning and protection. Grafts and cuttings could be made in the winter and set out in the spring, thus teaching the art of propagation. A few simple outdoor experiments touching upon soil texture, soil moisture, fertilizers and soil inoculation could be performed here. I suggested soil inoculation to a prominent advocate of the school garden and he replied, "The children would not understand it." I cannot agree with him. Children can see the tubercles on the roots of plants as easily as grown people. They can also see the effect of tubercles on the growth of plants and can imagine the presence of microscopic organisms fully as easily as grown people. What more does any man know about the subject unless he be a specialist in the use of the microscope and in knowledge of bacteria? Such a mystery, the results of which can be easily seen, is just the thing to place before a child to arouse his wonder and interest and to make him an enthusiastic observer and experimenter. It is the commonplace things that everybody knows that children soon tire of and that should be avoided in their work, unless they may be used to show children that they do not know all about them, in which case the new knowledge is not commonplace.

The garden may be used for the purpose of bringing insects near to the



school house for purposes of study. Thus while they would not care to try to produce a crop of cabbage or potatoes on the school ground, we would want the plants in our garden so that we could easily study the cabbage worm and potato beetle. A great deal of the value of the fruits in the garden would consist in the fact that they would bring their insect enemies and fungus diseases close to the school where they could be studied very profitably.

But perhaps the greatest value of the school garden will be found in the great amount of illustrative material for home building that may be brought together here. The grounds should be a landscape garden laid out in the natural style of planting. They should contain all the native forest trees and at least one specimen each of all the flowering and ornamental shrubs that would grow in the climate, as well as bulbs and other perennial flowers. The

object lesson of such a garden artistically arranged would react upon the whole community and the results would be beautiful homes and a happier and more contented people.

The plan of a garden herein outlined does not provide for a great deal of outdoor work for the children but such work is not absolutely necessary. Farmers' children do not need to be taught how to work. Their parents attend to that part of their instruction at home. But they do need much useful information which my plan of a garden is designed to furnish. Some work will have to be done by somebody outside of the school and the grounds will have to be enlarged from one acre to three or five acres. But the farmers will provide both as soon as they are convinced that the garden is to be useful to them and their children, and not a means of carrying out a teacher's fad.

### A BLUE GRASS VACATION.

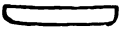
BY JAMES SPEED.


DEAR DOUGLAS:—Jack wrote to you about the nests in his last letter and I do hope you were able to figure out the reason with the help of the photos we sent. Jack says may be you have, but he is afraid you haven't for we had hard work on it. If you made outlines of the nests it wouldn't have been very hard. If you did not take a look at this one we made.


We have found that all of the nests of crows, doves, fly-up-the-creeks and those birds that build on heavy


branches or close to the trunk of the tree, are rather shallow. You see, they can not be swung very much in the wind.


Robins, red-wing blackbirds and a number of other birds build deeper nests. You can see that in the outline we have sent you. Robins usually build farther out on the limbs than those other birds, and red-wing blackbirds build in light bushes or in the cat-tails like the pictures we sent you some time ago. In such places the nests

CROW  on big limbs or close to trunk of tree

REDWING  
BLACKBIRD  in a place where it will rock in the wind come

ROBIN  in a place where it will rock in the wind come

GREENLET  where it will rock more

ORIOLE  where it can swing straight out

### THE WAY WE WORKED IT OUT

would swing a great deal in a heavy wind storm. Do you begin to get the reason for the differences?

Jack and I have been wondering if you know a vireo when you see it. Sometimes they call them greenlets, they are small green or olive green fellows that are always getting insects among the leaves of the trees. Uncle showed us a couple of the nests a year or two ago, but we haven't any picture of them at all. I believe you and Jack and I found one; yes, we did. Do you remember out in the woods back of town a little nest we found hanging between the forks of a twig on a small persimmon tree? It was a light gray; and you said, it was just about big enough to drop a small rubber ball into? Well, that's a vireo's nest. It is deeper and snugger than the robin's and red-wing blackbird's.

Of course, you can go out on the corner and see the oriole's nest any time. Notice how deep it is; and, also, that it is narrower at the top. Once

we three fellows stood and watched it swing almost straight out in the wind. Now you have about four different kinds of nests. Why do birds build their nests so very different?

Jack and I have worked it out this way. Birds that build rough, shallow, poorly made nests, place them where the wind can not shake them to any great extent. Those that build nests out on limbs or in bushes or cat-tails, where they will swing, make them deeper. The vireos that build out on the very slender branches, make their nests deeper still; and the orioles weave long slender pockets so that no matter how much they are tossed the eggs will not spill out. Did you get this same answer?

Yours,

Toss.

DEAR DOUGLAS:—Toss has been writing you about bird nests, so this time I shall have to write you about the other things we have been doing. I am certain you have been wondering what we are doing with the cave. Everything was going along splendidly and Toss and I were certain that no one knew a thing about it, but Uncle had found out. We wrote you that he knows boys, well he wasn't going to let us think he knew anything, but he just had to. It was this way. We were getting ever so far back into the clay bank, and two or three times when we came down in the morning to work, we would find a lot of dirt had fallen down from the ceiling. Without our knowing it Uncle had been coming down every morning before us. So one morning he was there and had a long talk with us. He told us how easy it would be for us to get smothered in the cave, if the top suddenly



broke down. I suppose boys don't think much about things for we should have remembered that even in coal mines that are stone or coal or slate they put in heavy timbers. Do you know, Doug, while we were sitting there on the creek bank in front of the cave talking about it, we heard a slipping sound. Then there was a sound like rustling leaves and a little dirt came out of the door of the cave. We all jumped up and peeped in. It made me feel sick and a little shaky; the top had fallen in and the cave was almost full of loose dirt.

If Uncle had not come down to talk

with us about the cave I believe Jack and I would have been inside at work. If you ever try building a cave be sure and have it propped up good and tight. Uncle has promised us that, as the cave is ruined, we can take his tent and go for a little "camping-out" some time soon.

Yours,

JACK.

DEAR DOUGLAS:—Everyone has been so busy lately Jack and I have hardly had time to go into the woods at all. They were hurrying for ever so many days cutting wheat, and we helped them shock. Do you know it looks awfully easy when you watch the



men shock the sheaves. They simply pick up a lot of the sheaves and put the heads together and put two across the top to keep the rain out. Jack and I ran out and began the work, and just about the time we would have ten of the sheaves in place they would all tumble down. It is like the first time you watch a fellow catching a ball. It looks easy as can be, but when you try the ball will miss your hands. We can put up a shock now, and the fields look beautiful dotted with them. We are sending you a photo of a bit of the field in front of the house. The wheat was cut a week ago, and today immediately after dinner the threshing machine pulled into the fields and began work. It is another place where it looks easy but is hard to do.

My hands are so sore from the twine about the middle of the sheaves and working about the threshing machine that I can hardly write, so I'll say good-night.

Yours,

Toss.

P.S.—Almost forgot to send you a splendid photo Uncle got of an old dove that has a nest in a little pear tree

in the edge of the orchard. We found it by her dropping out and pretending she was wounded or lame. She would drag her wing and one leg after her. When we followed her she would take us about a half block away and then suddenly fly up and go like the wind.





## Within the School-Room.

A Department of Observation and Reports of Classwork and School Management Conducted by George Alfred Brown.



### *The Glidden School, DeKalb.*

The Glidden is one of the elementary schools of the town of DeKalb, Illinois. It gives the entire course from the first grade to the eighth. The building has eight school rooms, four on each floor, and very large well lighted central halls. These halls are in use almost all of the time by groups of children engaged in plays and games, rhythmic movements, and physical training exercises. A piano on one of the stair landings is in use much of the time in connection with these activities. The rooms, also, are large, giving space in each for wide aisles between the rows of seats, and for good sized sand tables, work or recitation places, flower stands, etc. Several organs for use in connection with the singing are provided. Four boys can easily roll one of these into any room at the time it is wanted. Seated in each room are classes of at least two different grades, and the work is directed by a critic teacher assisted by two or three student teachers from the Normal. The work of the Glidden School as a whole is directed by Professor N. D. Gilbert, head of the practice department of the State Normal School at DeKalb.

The evident purpose of the work done in this school is first of all to meet the immediate needs of child life. Its motto seems to be that the most perfect childhood is the best preparation for manhood and womanhood. This does not mean, of course, that childhood is

always childish. It has its aspirations and its desires to co-operate in an effort to realize common interests, which tend to control action. Nor does it mean that children have not at every stage some interest in and appreciation of the duties and inspiring ideals and affections which organize the mature life about them. But it means that the child grows more healthfully into maturity by living adequately his life as a child.

Entering the Glidden School at almost any time during school hours, the visitor finds part of the children and teachers engaged in the halls at some game or exercise requiring expression or response through bodily motions, and bringing about co-operative activities. The children working together at anytime are from two or three different rooms, and of about the same age, or of different ages as the game in hand may require.

Within the rooms on the first floor, also, where the work of the first four grades is given, much time is devoted to bodily exercises in gymnastics and to musical games and expression through hand work in drawing, constructions of paper, card board, and even with wood through knife work, and with clay moulding and sand table constructions. There is some out-of-door nature study and some work with plant and animal life done in the school room. All of this physical activity is intended to develop those na-

tive powers of human life which will later enter into the larger relations of social, business, and institutional organization.

But along with this there must go a parallel development of inner power through the organization of language, and of ideas of relation and of values as expressed in abstract symbols, or established as general controls of conduct. A first visit to the school leaves the impression that an undue proportion of the time of the children is devoted to the physical activities which too often have been neglected as an element in school education. Artificial standards with regard to the word images, number facts, and information in history, geography, etc., that should be acquired in each grade, and over confidence in the educative value of power to read what gives little interest or meaning to the child, and to follow rules of procedure, forms of analysis, and summaries of information sufficiently to pass certain established tests has, perhaps, made it difficult for school men as well as the people to wait for these more formal results of school work until the child is old enough to acquire them without danger of arresting the fuller development of his human nature.

In the lower grades of the Glidden School, this inner growth of power for self-direction, self-organization of aims, and self-mastery—which constitutes the personality—is cultivated less formally than by the ordinary course of study. For this purpose much use is made of literature stories, picture study, music, and observations of social and civic activities available in the

neighborhood. A rich content of imagination and experience is maintained for all spoken and printed language symbols that the children are expected to acquire, and the attempt is made to secure a similar enrichment of content for the number facts and the particular information given along the lines of geography, history, and civics, through various uses of the sand table.

In the upper grades the work which the writer saw, indicated that the children were there assumed to be already entering into many of the activities of their elders, at least to the extent of trying to understand how they carried on their social and business relations. Some of the work at least had the character of "finishing courses," and of the "Business College."

A most admirable thing about this school is the unity of spirit and effort manifested in everything. Children, pupil teachers, everybody, enters body and soul into whatever is going on and find a natural place and a relation of hearty fellowship in the activity of the lesson. In no other training school that I have visited is there an equal opportunity for Normal school pupils to come to know so much of child nature and to gain control of themselves in following out their relations as teachers in directing the child's education.

There is much that must belong to the complete school which is not yet adequately provided for in this one. It is almost impossible to organize a natural order of development in children's education without a complete equipment and an ideal environment. Even then, however, what is ideal for the needs of one child would not be so for

another one differing much in its nature. So the teacher must always have the larger part as the guiding influence.

Three things not mentioned above in connection with this school seem to be essential to give adequate equipment. These are:—ground used for free play and depended upon by the teachers for part of the social and moral education of the children;—a library with many places and opportunities for individual reading and study within reach of needed books;—and work rooms where any child may develop structural ideas of his own under necessary guidance, in addition to class instruction of this kind.

With these facilities what may be called the *student attitude* could be cultivated more naturally, for it would be stimulated in the self-direction of plays and games, in the self-organization of private study, and in the self-mastery of doing things within one's power of accomplishment. No school will fulfill its purpose which does not succeed in arousing this student attitude, for its aim must be to give its pupils the power to meet new problems and situations in a way to solve these through their own efforts if necessary. It is mere training, and not education which aims to establish habits and tendencies of reaction only.

G.A.B.

#### **School Teachers Should Not be so Solemn.**

(By a summer student at a Normal.)

Arnold Tompkins says in one of his books, that the teacher who has not a rich and full range of emotional life can expect nothing but a withered soul born of his teaching. How many withered souls there must be in our

schools today, because of teachers who cannot get enough joy from life to enable them occasionally to smile or laugh in the schoolroom. This ought not to be true; a school teacher should not be solemn.

In the first place, a solemn teacher deadens the imaginative power of his pupil. I have seen, in our own city, numberless teachers whose chief occupation, outside of teaching, was that of reading "The Ladies Home Journal" and talking about their salaries. To teaching they saw no humorous side; they regarded the children as so many little rain-barrels to be filled to the top and never disturbed by a wiggle-tail of fun. I was in a room once where a little brown-eyed German girl raised her hand and asked, "Can I go by my brother and get some paper off him?" and the teacher said "Yes!" and marked a little boy P in deportment because he laughed.

In the second place, there is in every healthy pupil a certain amount of energy that must be worked out in some way. If the teacher's soul is not sympathetic and large enough to overlook a bubble of merriment, or even a silly fit of giggles, if he cannot brush off the gravity and soberness from his face long enough to be interested himself and interest the children, he is not to be pitied if they make handkerchief babies or sling-shots, and play with them. I think far more poor recitations are due to solemnness on the part of the teacher than to lack of preparation on the part of the teacher or pupil.

Then, too, the solemn teacher, if he goes to summer school, cannot get half so much out of his summer term's

work as can the one with the sense of humor. Why, once last summer, Nellie, one of my roommates, saw a strange girl sitting on the campus, holding her head and her grammar. Nellie sat down and chanted:

"Oh, my little grammar,  
My little funny grammar,  
My little honey grammar  
Miss Gowdy maked one day!"

and the girl never smiled but said, "Oh kid, what is the copula in this sentence?"

By a student refusing to be solemn, homesickness, the dread of the Normalite can be warded off. Last year there sat in front of us in drawing, a girl who was always wiping her eyes on the corners of her handkerchief. We usually got through our work

quickly (the teacher was solemn) and Helen banged Josephine over the head with her drawing board and Josephine stuck thumb-tacks in Helen's wrists to amuse the sorrower, but she never would laugh. That girl failed!

Once this year I grew just a little homesick, and wrapped my toothbrush up in my handkerchief and took it to class with me. It felt so funny every time I squeezed it that I was happy all day.

If, then, solemnity withers the imaginative power of the pupil, if it prevents the energy of the pupil from being expended in the right direction, if it shuts the teacher himself from many of the little homely joys of life he should conquer it as far as possible, and allow himself occasionally to smile or laugh.

#### THE HUMAN BRAIN.

It Does Not Think Itself but Acts as the Servant of the Personality.

Practically, the two brain hemispheres in our head are analogous to two phonographs, because phonographs can no more themselves cover their wax leaves with words expressing ideas than they can make wax think. The phonographs are wonderful instruments, but they are never anything but instruments; and so the brain hemispheres are the instruments of the thinker, and nothing more, for if they could themselves think, then both hemispheres would think as a matter of course, when, as a matter of fact, only one of them has a single imprint of the human mind in it.

*What is it, therefore, that thinks? Unquestionably the human personality, which is itself independent of the brain that it uses.* So far as the brain is concerned, it is simply physical in its structure and chemical in its composition. But in one of its halves we are face to face with the tremendous Exception to everything earthly. The evolutionist can make a good showing that in structure man's brain differs but little from the chimpanzee's, just as it ought to in the ascending series of animals. But when it comes to the human *mind*,

the evolutionist has to quit. What but a mind worked by a man could both weigh and accurately locate in the heavens a great planet, which neither he nor any one else had yet seen? And so the human world abounds with innumerable utter impossibilities for mere animals to achieve. Every article in an ordinary city house, be it a thermometer or a book, or anything else in it, is equally an impossibility for animals, by any process of evolution, to attain the power of producing.

Mentally, therefore, man is as much out of keeping with the entire succession and developments of evolution as any being from another world would be, and those who would still say that because the human brain so closely resembles that of the ape, these two cannot be far apart, are themselves their only good arguments. Meanwhile, for this human thinker one instrument for thinking is enough, and he does not need two hemispheres any more than a violinist needs two violins. The second hemisphere is then only to provide against accidental damage to the first, when, if he be yet young, the thinker can in time teach it to become human also in mental powers, but not if its chords have become too stiffened with age.—Dr. William Hanna Thomson, in the *May Everybody's*.



## COMMENT.

### SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION

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#### MORE STATISTICS ON THE ELIMINATION OF PUPILS FROM SCHOOL.

The criticism of Prof. E. L. Thorndike's bulletin, "The Elimination of Pupils from School," which appeared in the May issue of this magazine, has called out some interesting comment. The eminent statistician, Roland P. Falkner, recently Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, writes:

"I am much interested in the excellent criticism of Dr. Thorndike's monograph.—I would like to call attention to a brief note in the *Psychological Clinic* for May 15, 1908, which touches upon the same thing perhaps a little more clearly."

The enlightening paragraph in the *Psychological Clinic* to which Mr. Falkner refers,

and which is by the editor of that paper, reads as follows:

"Dr. Thorndike has taken as a measure of the average number of children entering the school system each year, the enrollment of the first three grades divided by three. The fact is that the number in the first three grades includes all who entered in the last three years, plus some who entered four years before, plus some who entered five years before, and plus some who entered even earlier. Hence to get the average number of new entries we must divide not by three, but by a larger number—"

Dr. Thorndike, of course, may respond to this that in seeking to find how many pupils are eliminated in each grade, he can not very well start with the assumption that all who enter in the first three years remain in school even for those three years. Nor is it true that they all do. A number leave because they have reached 14 years of age, others leave to go to private schools or because of ill health, etc.

The points made in the criticism made in this journal last month, were (1) that from other statistics than those of enrollment in these grades, namely, the statistics of age retentions, and the census of age population, it is evident that in most public schools there are actually more pupils enrolled in any one of the first four grades than enter the school system, and (2) that it is an unwarranted and ignorant use of statistics to claim any definite results with regard to one subject of investigation from records dealing with an entirely different subject without first discussing the definite relation of these records to each subject and showing how to eliminate the undesired element in the given data. To simply average errors which, in the case of the enrollment in first grade admittedly amount to as much as 50 per cent of the record, is imbecile if not dishonest. To give his work any of the statistical value he claims for it, Dr. Thorndike should have shown clearly that the enrollment in the second and third grades must fall enough below the number entering school to balance the excess of hold-overs in the first grade.

For most of the twenty-three cities, however, Dr. Thorndike gives no explanation of how he arrives at the assumed number of entering pupils used by him in determining his percentages of elimination. The percentages he gives, therefore, have absolutely no statistical value so far as appears from this bulletin, but are entirely Dr. Thorndike's personal judgment in the matter. A critical study of the bulletin discovers the sentence, quoted in last month's article, in which Dr. Thorndike admits the purely arbitrary basis of his percentages. This being so, how actually dishonest to the public, though apparently self-

deceived, is the effort made to give an appearance of statistical value by juggling with enrollment records in one place and with a few age retention records in another place.

It is one of the curious things in this monograph that Dr. Thorndike does not appear to have discovered the contradictions of his results which appear in some of the supplementary discussions. For instance, the one mentioned last month of the table showing the distribution by ages of pupils in the public schools. The results shown in this table should have suggested to a statistician the necessity of checking up his assumptions by means of the United States census reports, for corroborative evidence at least. In the case of Baltimore for instance, the census for 1900 gives but an average of about 8600 white children for each of the school ages from six to fourteen. But Dr. Thorndike estimates from the enrollment of the second grade that 11,900 children enter the Baltimore schools each year.

Another fallacy appears in his discussion of age retention statistics. Instead of using these records as a means of analyzing, to some extent at least, the data given by the enrollment statistics and so eliminating some of the errors of grade enrollment as a record of entering pupils, he tries to use these records independently. He thus secures what he calls a check of the accuracy of his percentages of elimination secured by using the enrollment records independently. In order to get this similarity of percentages, however, he repeats again his practice of assuming what figures he shall take as representing the number entering school. In this case, he takes the enrollment in second grade in a hypothetical case instead of the assumed number of pupils of entering age. In the hypothetical case he assumes that there are in school 1000 six year olds, 1000 seven year olds, and so on, making proper deductions for the elimination that would occur of pupils above ten years old, and distributes these in the different grades according to the age-grade relation found in Connecticut in 1903. In a table of enrollments so constructed, he finds over 1200 pupils in second grade and he takes this enrollment as the number of entering pupils instead of the 1000 used in constructing the table, and in that way gets his two estimates to agree. Yet he states in a paragraph on a preceding page that the Connecticut report shows that (to quote his words) "the second grade is harder than the later grades, more pupils staying a year and a half, or two years in it than in the later ones; as a result, the percentages of retention of pupils in the later grades are a little lower when based on the second grade population than they would be if based on the number of pupils beginning school." We print below a letter from Dr. Thorndike in which he again asserts that his method of allowance for hold-overs is adequate.

G. A. B.

#### A LETTER FROM DR. THORNDIKE.

It is to be feared that the comment of G. A. B. in the May, 1908, number of your Journal (pp. 355-357) may mislead some of your readers. The facts which he mentions were taken account of in the Bulletin which he attacks (and also other important facts which in part counterbalanced them). G. A. B. neglects the fact that just as the first grade in most cities numbers far more than those beginning school in one year, so also any late grade in most cities numbers far more than those who, having begun school in some one year, have continued to that grade. That is, G. A. B. would make an allowance for "hold-overs" in grades I, II and III but would make none in grades IV and on. The author of the Bulletin made the allowance suggested by this critic but also made the very important counter-balancing one.

Yours faithfully,

E. L. THORNDIKE.

EDITORIAL NOTE.—Dr. Thorndike apparently fails to understand the method of making the allowance for "hold-overs" suggested in the article referred to. The statistics of over age pupils in each of the lower grades referred to in the article of last month showed that there was a larger percentage of over-age pupils in second grade than in first, also, a larger percentage of hold-overs in the third grade than in the second, and a slightly larger percentage of hold-overs in the fourth grade than in the third, and, therefore, each of those grades may be expected to have enrolled a larger number than enter school in one year.

#### SUMMER SCHOOLS.

Each year the summer schools given in connection with the Normals and the Universities are providing a better way for the needs of teachers. If you want some particular thing you will find some school offering that with the best attainable teacher. One of the most successful schools for the teacher preparing for examinations leading to a better grade of certificate is that at Valparaiso, Indiana. Expenses are small. The Normal schools arrange the work in their summer terms so that credits may be secured toward the Normal school diploma. The universities give many special courses in literature, the languages, mathematics, and in the different sciences and in Agricultural and Mechanical lines of work. Each offers advantages in particular lines.

#### RAILROAD RATES TO CLEVELAND.

A one and one-half fare rate has been granted to members of the N.E.A. going to the Cleveland meeting. This rate is secured on the certificate plan.

Purchase a ticket to Cleveland between June 25 and July 1 at regular one way fare and get a certificate from the agent showing the amount of fare paid and route traveled. On reaching Cleveland this certificate must be signed by the Secretary of the N.E.A. showing that the holder is a member and has paid

\$2.00 membership fee. This \$2.00 may be paid when certificate is deposited with the Membership Registration Bureau. The Joint Railway Agent will then validate the certificate on a payment of a 25 cent fee, and it will then secure to the holder a return trip ticket at one-half fare. The date of return may be extended up to August 31 by depositing the certificate with the Joint Railway Agent and paying \$1.00 fee.

#### EDUCATION SUNDAY.

June 28 is Education Sunday at Cleveland. Sermons on educational topics will be given in almost all of the churches. Some of the topics announced are:

The Twentieth Century a Century of Education, at the Pilgrim Congregational; Education and Religion, at Trinity; Religion in the Public Schools, at Epworth Memorial; Mind the Servant of Personality, at Plymouth; The School Teacher in the Republic, at the First Methodist; Character in Education, at St. Bridget's; The Catholic Idea of Education, at St. Agnes; Moral Education, at Unity; Religion in the Public Schools, at Aushe Emeth; The Present Relationship of Education and Christianity, by Dr. Charles F. Thwing, at Euclid Ave. Congregational Church, and similar topics at most of the others.

#### EUROPE FOR \$375.

Miss Mary E. Fitzgerald, of 45 S. Hamlin Ave., Chicago, who is known to most of our readers for her bright school stories, conducts her third annual party to Europe, sailing June 27. There is to be coaching in Ireland, England and Switzerland, and sight-seeing in France, Italy, Germany, Holland and Belgium, also. But two more can be accommodated in the party.

#### GOOD CITIZENSHIP.

Grover Cleveland has written a book with the above title that is now in press. It will be issued in June by the Henry Altemus Co., of Philadelphia, and will undoubtedly be a book every teacher should read. The price will be 50 cents.

### IMPORTANT ANNOUNCEMENT

#### Opportunity for Teachers

#### ILLINOIS CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

Examinations for Principals, Advanced Primary, Kindergarten, and Art teachers will be held in the Cook County Civil Service Rooms, Chicago, and the State House, Springfield, June 4, 5, and 6, 1908. Examinations will begin at 9 o'clock in the morning and will be open to men and women over 21 years of age. The scope and weights of these examinations will be:

Reading 2; Arithmetic 2; Grammar and Composition 2; Geography 2; Physiology 2; Elementary Science 2; Methods in School Economy 3; History of the United States and

Illinois 1; Civil Government 1; Spelling 1; Writing 1; Drawing 1. Total, 20.

Art Teacher—Proof of grammar school education 1; Diploma from recognized Art School 1; Experience in teaching 3; Special questions on Art 5. Total, 10.

#### SPECIAL EXAMINATION JUNE 15, FOR PRINCIPAL

An examination for Head Teacher or Principal of the Illinois School for the Deaf will be held at the Illinois School for the Deaf, Jacksonville, June 15, 1908. The examination will begin at 9 o'clock. It will be open to men and women over the age of 25 years. The scope and weights for this examination will be:

Education and professional 4; Experience in teaching the deaf 2; Special questions on deaf mute education 1; Personal qualifications and oral examination 3. Total, 10.

Requests for applications should be addressed to the Illinois Civil Service Commission, Springfield. All applications should be filed before June 4.

JOSEPH C. MASON,  
Chief Examiner, Civil Service Commission,  
Springfield, Illinois.

#### ILLINOIS CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

#### SPECIAL EXAMINATION JUNE 6, FOR TEACHERS OF THE DEAF.

Examination for Literary, Art, Domestic Science and Physical Culture Teachers in the School for the Deaf, Jacksonville, will be held in the Cook County Civil Service Commission's Rooms, Chicago; The State House, Springfield, and at the Illinois School for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Saturday, June 6, 1908. Examinations will begin at 9 o'clock. The scope of these examinations will be:

Literary teachers—Education and professional 2; Experience in teaching 1; Experience in teaching 1; Experience in teaching the deaf 3; Special questions on deaf mute education 4.

Art teachers—Proof of grammar school education 1; Diploma from recognized Art School 1; Experience in teaching 1; Experience in teaching the deaf 2; Special questions on art 5.

Physical Culture teachers—Proof of grammar grade education 1; Diploma from recognized school having physical culture course 1; Experience in teaching 1; Experience in teaching the deaf 2; Special questions on Physical Culture 5.

Domestic Science teachers—Proof of grammar grade school education 1; Education and special training and experience in teaching 2; Experience in teaching the deaf 1; Food sanitation and dietetics 1; Chemistry and geography of food 2; Practical cooking 3.

Requests for information concerning the examination and for applications should be addressed to the Illinois Civil Service Commission, Springfield. All applications should be filed before June 4.

JOSEPH C. MASON,  
Chief Examiner, Civil Service Commission,  
Springfield, Illinois.

### THE ILLINOIS STATE CONGRESS OF MOTHERS.

The annual meeting was held in Bloomington, May 7 to 9, and was a most interesting and valuable session. The discussions demonstrated again that this association is directed by wise councils and inspired by broad ideas of the "formative, preventative, and protective work needed to secure the child's welfare." The welcoming addresses showed that the Bloomington people were in full sympathy with the purposes of the Congress, and the response by the president of the Congress, Mrs. Geo. M. Brill, was remarkable for its wise suggestions and comprehensive view of needed reforms. The following are some sentences from her response:

"Knowledge of and sympathy with child life is essential. There is a right education of young men and young women. We are all too ready to let the school do our work, both fathers and mothers, without thinking of the many ill-equipped, poorly paid and overworked teachers and the overcrowded, badly ventilated and lighted buildings, to say nothing of materials with which to work. But the schools are ours and not only the mothers but the fathers must be interested for they vote the revenue and one of the greatest needs of the present day is more money for our public schools.

"A pertinent topic for discussion in a business men's club would be: 'How can we, as individual fathers, conduct our business so as to furnish that companionship to our children which they so much need?' We believe a part of the Congress' effort should be directed towards a simpler standard of living so that men generally would not feel the pressure of unreasonable financial demands from the home on one hand when they are struggling in the fierce competition of the business world on the other."

"We believe that the standards of home life should be raised through the development of a better trained parenthood. This can only be brought about by substituting knowledge for ignorance. It is well known that ancestry influences and that a thousand nameless, subtle, half-blind, half-conscious forces unite in the character of every child born into the world."

"We believe that the child should be surrounded with loving, wise care in the impressionable years of life. It is not so much what a child is taught as it is the atmosphere in which he lives. We lay too much stress on inheritance and too little upon the influences of early life. The problem of all education is to lead the child in the normal processes of growth.

"The congress recognizes the value of laws which will protect and care for children, so it seeks to promote all laws touching childhood—school laws, the child labor laws, compulsory education, juvenile court laws, etc. Through lectures given by persons who have made child life a field of study, the congress hopes to arouse a more general interest in its work. To further accomplish its objects, sys-

tematic efforts to form mothers' clubs, child study circles and school associations are made. The establishment of kindergartens is considered essential.

"As the child of today is a citizen of tomorrow, the work of the congress is civic work in its broadest and highest sense. Men and women and clubs are invited to join in this organized effort for a higher, nobler national life which can only be attained through the individual home. Our specialty is child culture. Will you help?"

The morning session of Thursday was full of important deliberations on the objects and work of mothers' organizations. Mrs. F. C. Fritts, of Peoria, explained the relation of the Congress to the work done by the Juvenile Court. She advocated that parents' and teachers' clubs have a duty as an agency for doing away with the conditions making for juvenile delinquency, and emphasized the need of moral training in the schools.

The importance of the kindergarten was reiterated in the report of Mrs. Mary Boomer Page. Mrs. L. K. Gillson reported that many church societies had aided the work and objects of the Congress in many ways during the year. Mrs. W. S. Hefferan reported on the work of the committee on desired legislation, especially the effort to increase the age limit to which children shall be required to attend school to 16 years.

In the afternoon Mrs. Alfred Bayliss spoke on industrial education, and offered a resolution advocating a law making manual training obligatory in the school and requiring high school boys over fifteen to engage in some actual business employment for a part of each day. After much discussion this was referred to the resolutions committee, and was reported back in a modified form.

State Superintendent Francis G. Blair gave a very able and timely address. He urged the interest of parents in having better teachers in the schools, and said that the first work of the State Educational Commission should be a plan for better preparation of teachers and a better method of certification.

The evening address by Prof. Nathaniel R. Butler, of Chicago University, was most scholarly. His topic was "The Place and Function of the High School." His thought was that the high school should train boys and girls to take part effectively in social life. He recognized four requisites as equally important in this training. Education must give some specific means of making a living. The other three elements make for the broader and larger life. A broad view of life in general is essential. This is culture—"An intelligent interest in the finer things of life—in music, in art, but primarily in courtesy, friendship, and religion." The third requirement is such a training as will give the power to concentrate attention and effort. "To put 100 per cent of yourself into your job." And the fourth requirement is the strengthening of moral character;—the sense of fairness, and strength to make it the first test of all action, that it be clean, just, and moral.

At the business meeting of Friday morning, the following officers for the ensuing year were elected:

President—Mrs. Orville T. Bright, of Englewood.

Vice-Presidents—Mrs. Samuel Bradt, of DeKalb, Mrs. L. K. Gillson, of Wilmette; Mrs. F. J. Scott, of Chicago.

Corresponding Secretary—Mrs. W. H. Browne, of Englewood.

Recording Secretary—Mrs. W. F. Blodgett, of South Chicago.

Treasurer—Mrs. L. D. Doty, of South Chicago.

Auditor—Mrs. Samuel Sailor, of Chicago.

Directors—Mrs. Joseph Wile, of Chicago; Mrs. George W. Busey, of Urbana; Mrs. Louis B. Merwin, of Bloomington; Mrs. George M. Brill, of Chicago.

#### OUT OF DOOR STUDIES IN GEOGRAPHY.

The magnificently illustrated studies of American Glaciers and of the Mississippi Region by Superintendent F. M. Fultz, will be published in book form at once. The studies that have appeared in "SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION" have attracted wide attention. Never before has there appeared for school use so valuable a series of illustrations enabling the children to follow so exactly the work of the actual out-of-door student. The book will contain the American Glacier series of three studies; two on ice and water erosion; eight studies on the Upper Mississippi Region including the formation of its surface, its landscapes, soils, forests and mineral wealth, agricultural industries, and mills; a study of the Mississippi River from St. Louis to Minneapolis, and studies of coal mining, and of granite works and stone cutter's shop.

This book will enrich the work of seventh grade geography most wonderfully. For prices write the Public-School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

## BOOK TABLE

**LOVE AND LOYALTY.** A timely book for Teachers and Graduates. By Jenkin Lloyd Jones. 460 pages. Cloth, Price \$1.50. The University of Chicago Press. For sale by Unity Publishing Co., Abraham Lincoln Centre, Chicago.

This is a collection of some twenty-two talks to young people delivered at commencement time each year from 1886 to 1907. They were given to Mr. Jones's own class, and are his parting words for the year. The topic for each talk is the class motto, selected during the years as giving expression to that idea which seemed most appealing, sustaining, and uplifting to the young people themselves.

These talks are full of a genius of expression of the deep sympathies, and appreciations which only the teacher may have for

young minds. Not more than once a year and at the time of parting could such appropriate words be found and utterance made of feelings, insights, needed councils, and encouragements as are given in each of the talks in this book, covering as it does the relations of twenty-five years between teacher and pupils.

"Love and Loyalty" is a most appropriate book for teacher or parents to present to young graduates. Edwin Markham says of this book:

"Love and Loyalty" is a collection of talks on noble living, addresses delivered, Easter after Easter, for twenty-two years, to the boys and girls of his Confirmation Class in Chicago. In these times so strident with the shrill call, 'Get on, or get out!' it is refreshing, indeed, to come upon a book like Mr. Jones's that insists upon seeking first the ideal, upon remembering the rights of others, upon living the simple life. This book is not flung together crow's-nest fashion; for it is taken with loving care from rich treasures of the writer's mind. It is not only sweet with the wisdom of the heart, but also bright with parables from science, history, and literature. The volume ought to be on every young person's shelf, and on the table of elders whose hearts are young."

Orders may be sent to SCHOOL AND HOME EDUCATION, Bloomington, Illinois, and the book will be mailed prepaid on receipt of price, \$1.50.

**SIN AND SOCIETY.** By Prof. Ross of the Department of Sociology in the University of Wisconsin. Published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.

This is a little volume of less than two hundred pages printed in large type, the net price of which is one dollar.

But small and inexpensive as it is it will prove great in its influence in directing the thinking of the men who make public opinion in this country. It is a direct appeal to the intellect, no where touched with emotion, but there are few books that stir the emotions more deeply. It is a bald statement of fact, concise and forceful, which one reads to the end and ponders afterward.

The volume is especially valuable in its suggestions of method for the eradication of the deadly sin against society that now threatens the life of this republic. The key-note of the process by which the social order shall free itself from the old-man-of-the-sea, in the form of predatory wealth, which has become fastened upon it, is a better education of the general public. This public confounds the personal vices of individual citizens, with sins against society. Vice is the harm a person does to himself. Sin is the harm one does to others. The vices forbidden by the Decalogue are held in universal abhorrence when called by the names given them for ages. A "vulgar thief," a "red-handed murderer," a "highway robber," and the like who practice their vices on our streets are universally abhorred, whatever be their wealth, their family, or their position. But how is it when this thief,

or robber, or murderer becomes a corporation? It is a popular saying that the corporation has no soul. It has a soul. The human element which is the soul and substance of the corporation does not stalk our streets as a bandit, but rides in his carriage and is looked upon by the community as its benefactor; for does he not give liberally to the associated charities? Is he not a pillar of the church? Are not his personal habits beyond reproach? "He has no small vices." He slays his thousands, it is true, while the vulgar bandit slays his tens, but he does it by his agents so many degrees removed that the misery he causes is never laid at his door. He does it all with that harmless instrument called "rebate," or "political influence" or a "generous act" to his friend the inspector who in return permits him to drown hundreds of innocent children in a worn out tub of an excursion boat.

This soul of the corporation weeps with the bereaved and, may be, founds an orphan asylum, but he keeps right on making dividends by the same method, and talks of the mysterious dispensations of providence when people are murdered.

This little volume lays bare with a vigorous pen the red-handed sins of predatory wealth in the various forms of its corporate cruelty. The corporation has a soul and that accountable soul is in the directorate of the corporation. Make these directors personally accountable for the sins committed by their agents who act in obedience to the game they are employed to play, and make them responsible for their ignorance of how the game is played. The more lofty the station of the official the more responsible is he for the misery and ruin caused by the corporation. In short, the remedy is to locate the responsible soul in the directors of the corporation, and punish him or them as a common vulgar murderer or thief, or perjurer, or bribe giver, or bribe taker. This will bring public opprobrium down upon their crimes and banish every accomplice of these crimes from respectable society to fraternize with the direct personal thieves and criminals that prey upon the community.

With such an outcome staring them in the face, the new fashioned sinners will play the game in obedience to the law of the land or they will drop out altogether.

**SOMERVILLE'S ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA.** By Frederick H. Somerville, The William Penn Charter School, Philadelphia. Half leather, 12mo., 407 pages. Price \$1.00. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

This book is planned to meet the real needs in teaching elementary algebra in secondary schools, including the present requirements of the College Entrance Examination Board. Among its important features are: The statement of problems by a consistent use of the idea of "translation;" the natural order and grouping of the type-forms in factoring; the logical plan of the introduction to fractions;

the economic arrangement of simultaneous equations; the introduction and the classification of the new forms in the theory of exponents; the consistent and teachable presentation of quadratic equations; the clear introduction to and the practical treatment of logarithms. In the early chapters exercises for oral drill are frequent. The written exercises consist of new problems carefully graded, and the numerous reviews are constructed on the lines of recent entrance questions of the leading colleges. The treatment of graphs is full but not perplexing, and is accompanied by diagrams of a superior character. The book responds to the growing demand for an introduction of the simpler formulas of the physical laboratory.

**JOHNSTON & BARNUM'S BOOK OF PLAYS FOR LITTLE ACTORS.** By Emma L. Johnston, Principal, and Madalene D. Barnum, Teacher of English, Brooklyn Training School for Teachers. Cloth, 16mo., 171 pages, with illustrations. Price, 30 cents. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago.

This little book will give school children a great deal of pleasure, and will train them both in expressive oral reading, and in intelligent silent reading. The volume has been prepared to meet the expressed wants of many teachers who recognize the value of dramatic representations at school. It comprises a series of little plays based upon familiar nursery rhymes and stories, such as Mary and her Lamb, the Lion and the Mouse, the Spider and the Fly, Old Mother Hubbard, and many others. These plays are adapted to the use of the youngest children at school, and are equally suitable for reading or for acting in the first or second years. The numerous illustrations are most attractive.

#### LITERARY NOTES.

In a paper on "The Teaching of Secondary Mathematics in the United States" read at the International Congress of Mathematicians at Rome, April 9, Professor David Eugene Smith of Columbia University, author of the popular *Smith Arithmetics* published by Ginn & Company, made a suggestion that seems likely to have a far-reaching effect. The proposition was that an international committee of professors and teachers of mathematics be formed to consider present-day reforms in secondary schools in this branch of science, and to report upon the same at the next Congress, to be held in Cambridge, England, in August, 1912.

The suggestion was received with great enthusiasm and a resolution putting it into effect unanimously passed by the Congress.

The immediate effect of this movement will be a critical investigation of the teaching of secondary mathematics in each of the leading countries of the world, with a view to presenting the results to teachers of all nations.

Probably no such significant step has before been taken in this department of education, — a world movement as against a local one.

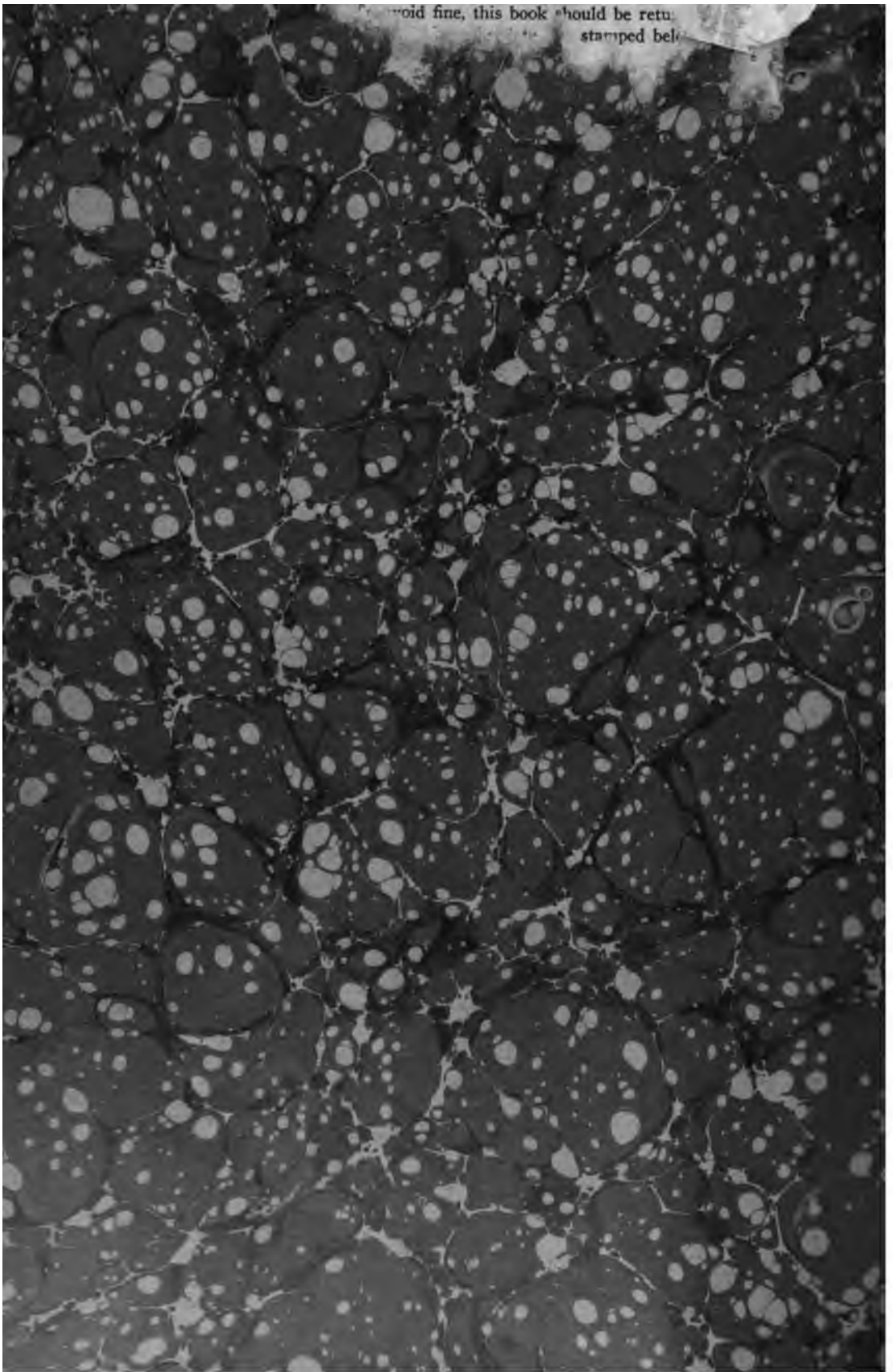


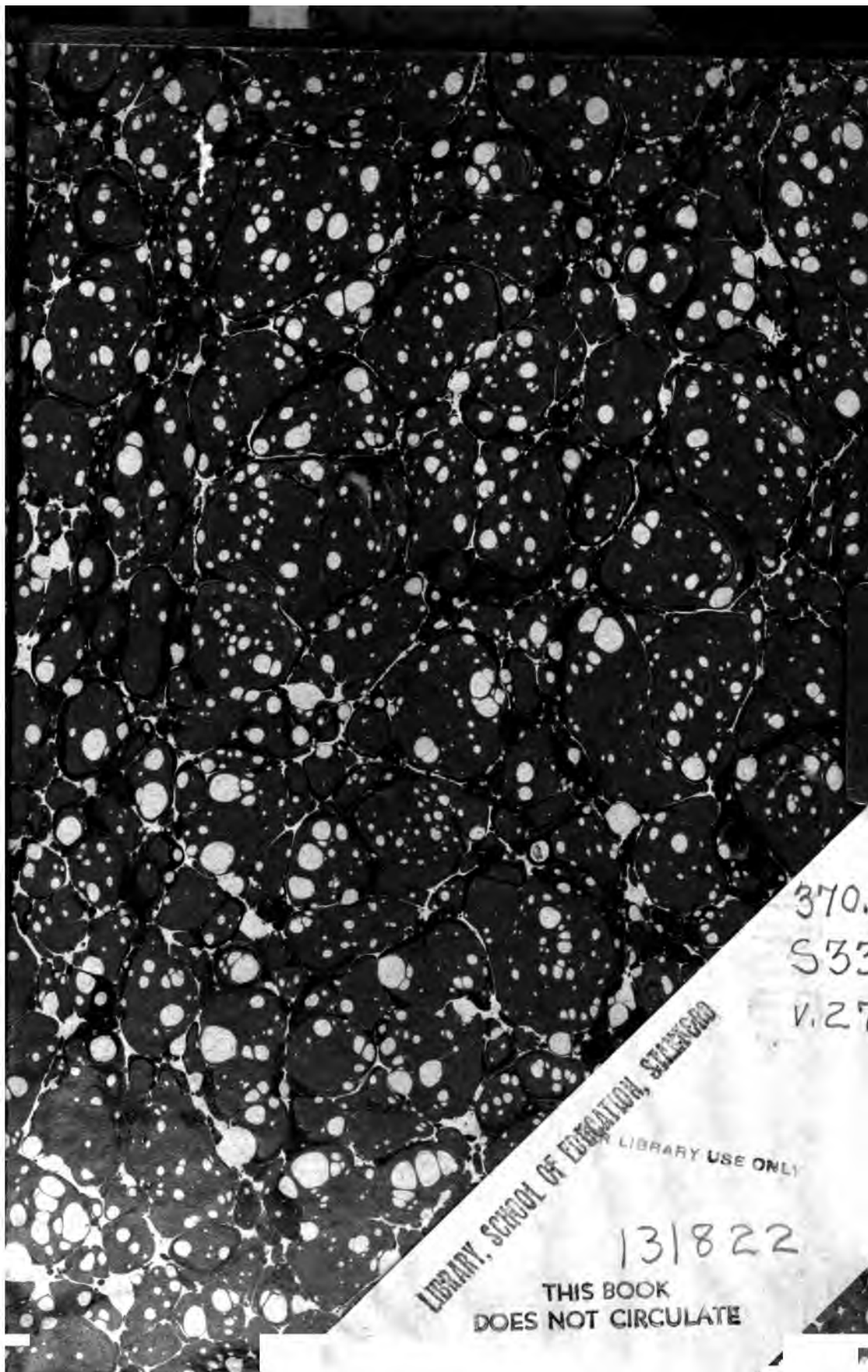






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